DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 267 555 EC 182 075

TITLE	A Review of Research Affecting Educational Programming for Bilingual Handicapped Students. Final Report, Volume 1.
INSTITUTION	Del Green Associates, Washington, DC.
SPONS AGENCY	Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services (ED), Washington, DC.
PUB DATE	Oct 83
CONTRACT	300-82-0310
NOTE	362p.; For related documents, see EC 182 076-077. Parts of document contain small, broken type.
PUB TYPE	Information Analyses (070)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC15 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	*Bilingual Education; Cultural Influences; Curriculum; Demography; *Disabilities; *Educational Policy; Elementary Secondary Education; Language Acquisition; *Limited English Speaking; Locus of Control; Parent Participation; Program Development; Teacher Education

ABSTRACT

The first (containing chapters 1 through 5) of two volumes begins a review of research regarding educational programming for bilingual handicapped students. The following major topics are addressed: (1) demography (socioeconomic ties, geographic location/residential patterns); (2) assessment (legal mandates, nondiscriminatory assessment); (3) cognitive-linguistic development and language-culture ties; (4) teacher training (critical competencies, characteristics of current training programs, model training programs); and (5) curriculum and instructional methods (locus of control and learned helplessness, second language acquisition). Chapters typically include recommendations for policy, references, and a substantial annotated bibliography. (CL)

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A REVIEW OF RESEARCH AFFECTING EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMMING FOR BILINGUAL HANDICAPPED STUDENTS

Final Report

Submitted To:

Division of Special Education
U.S. Department of Education
Washington, D.C. 20202

VOLUME I

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EC182075

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Contract No. 300-82-0310

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- TABLE OF CONTENTS -

A REVIEW OF RESEARCH AFFECTING EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMMING FOR BILINGUAL HANDICAPPED STUDENTS

Page

CHAPTER I: DEMOGRAPHY

A. Introduction 1-6

B. General Lanugage Minority Population Data 7-9

C. Geographic Location/Residental Patterns 10-11

D. Socioecnomic Ties 12-15

E. Questions, Issues and Concerns 16-17

F. References 18-20

G. Annotated Bibiliography 21-32

H. Tables 33-36

CHAPTER II: ASSESSMENT: A CRITICAL LOOK AT TESTING AND EVALUATION FROM A CROSS CULTURAL PERSPECTIVE

A. Introduction i

B. Who is Our Target Population? 1-7

C. What Legal Mandates Help Safeguard Linguistic Minorities in the Assessment Process? 8-12

D. What is "Nondiscriminatory Assessment"? 13-17

E. What are the Approaches Being Used in Order to Eliminate or Reduce Bias in Testing? 18-24

F. What are the Most Common Assessment Practices? 25-26

G. Are There Viable Alternative Comprehensive Cross Cultural Approaches? 27-29

H. Recommendations to Local, State and Federal Educators... 30-32

I. References 33-35

- TABLE OF CONTENTS -

Page

J. Annotated Bibliography 36-63

K. Assessment Guide 64-71

CHAPTER III: COGNITIVE LINGUISTIC DEVELOPMENT AND LANGUAGE-CULTURE TIES

A. The Synthesized Research Report 1-8

B. References 9-17

C. Annotated Bibliography 18-26

CHAPTER IV: TEACHER TRAINING

A. Introduction 1-3

B. Results of a National Needs Study 3-6

C. Need to Comply with Legislation/ Regulations 6-8

D. Recent History of Bilingual Special Education Teacher Training 8-12

E. Identifying Critical Competencies 12-36

F. Characteristics of Current Training Programs 37-42

G. Program Planning and Institutionalization 43-47

H. Model Training Programs 47-52

I. Recommendations 52-53

J. References 54

K. Appendices 55

CHAPTER V: CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTIONAL METHODS FOR EXCEPTIONAL BILINGUAL CHILDREN

A. Introduction 1-3

B. Cultural Relevance in Curriculum 3-6

- TABLE OF CONTENTS -

Page

C. Locus of Control and Learned Helplessness 6-11

D. Teacher-Pupil Interactions 11-13

E. Teaching Styles and Behaviors 13-15

F. Second Language Acquisition 16-18

G. Bilingual Instruction 19-24

H. Educational Implications of Hemispheric Research 24-25

I. Coordination Between Bilingual and Special Education 25-27

J. Individual Education Plans for LEP Students 28-30

K. Sequencing Instruction 31-34

L. Placement Alternatives 34-35

M. Service Delivery Models 35-39

N. Personnel Training Needs 39-43

O. Curriculum and Instruction Research Questions 43-47

P. Summary 47-50

Q. Tables 51-53

R. References 54-58

S. Annotated Bibliography 59-67

CHAPTER VI: PARENT INVOLVEMENT, EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN BILINGUAL SPECIAL EDUCATION

A. The State of the American Family 1-7

B. Problems Associated With Handicapping Conditions in Bilingual Families 7-13

1. Accuracy Count
2. Child Abuse
3. Teenage Pregnancies

C. Parent Involvement 13-14

D. Objections to Parent Involvement 14-16

- TABLE OF CONTENTS -

Page

E. Factors in Parental Involvement in Special Education 16-29

F. Parent Involvement in Bilingual Special Education 29-35

G. Initial Efforts Affecting Parent Involvement in Bilingual Special Education 35-36

H. Some Considerations for Involving Parents with Bilingual Exceptional Children 36-40

I. Recommendations for Future Directions and Actions in Parent Involvement 40-45

J. Bibliography 46-53

K. Annotated Bibliographies 54

CHAPTER VII: EDUCATIONAL POLICY & PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

A. Introduction i

B. Legislative Impacts Upon Bilingual Special Education 1-12

C. Related Impacts of Field Research 13-29

D. New Models for Change 20-22

E. Summary and Recommended Policy Options 23-25

F. Appendices 26-32

G. Annotated Bibliography 33-45

CHAPTER VIII: REACTION DOCUMENTS

CHAPTER IX: SELECTED STATE BSEP POLICIES

CHAPTER X: APPENDICES

CHAPTER I

The Bilingual Exceptional Child: Demography

Introductory Comments

The need to accurately conceptualize the scope of a target population in program development is obvious. Some authors, including Plata & Santos (1981) have suggested bilingual special education program models which vary in accordance with the size of the population to be addressed. Initially, literature directly regarding the population in question will, therefore, be presented. This material includes estimates of bilingual children in need of special services as well as enrollment data. General language minority population statistics are then covered as the size of the target population appears linked to this information throughout the literature. The extent and growth of language groups in the United States, therefore, appears quite noteworthy. Finally socioeconomic ties are presented.

The appendices are:

Table I: 1980 Elementary and Secondary Schools Civil Rights Survey, National Summary of Projected Data

Table Ia: Estimated numbers of persons with non-English language backgrounds in the United States, by language and age group: Spring 1976

Table 2: Estimates of total population and of persons with non English language backgrounds and of total school age children in the United States by region and State: Spring 1976

Map: Location of Language Minority Persons

Cantress (1981) indicated that one may properly anticipate a normal bell curve in terms of the abilities of any population of children. When graphed, a normal distribution forms a continuous, symmetrical, bell-shaped curve. It is high in the middle, indicating a preponderance of frequencies in the vicinity of the median and low at the ends, indicating low frequencies at both extremes of the distribution. Certain direct measures used in behavioral sciences (for example the beight and weight of adult humans) have been found to closely approximate this model and available evidence suggests that many traits underlying psychological measures are normally distributed. (Roscoe, 1975). Review of the literature addressing the size of the bilingual handicapped student population in the United States appears quite reflective of the normal distribution framework.

Early reports emphasize the over-representation of bilingual and multicultural children in special education classes, especially those for the Educably Mentally Handicapped, in comparison to their prevalence in the total school population. Culturally and linguistically biased assessment procedures were frequently cited in this regard. Mercer (1973) reported blacks seven times as likely and Mexican Americans ten times as likely to be placed in special education in one school district in California. Data by the California Department of Education for the entire state, reportedly, showed Blacks as 8.9 percent of the total public school population but 25 percent of the Educably Mentally Handicapped classes. Spanish surnames were 15.2 percent of the total population and 23 percent of the Educably Handicapped classes while Anglos were 72.4 and 50 percent, respectively. (Bryden,1974). Further, Dunn (1968) judged that about sixty to eighty percent of children in special classes come from low status backgrounds including Black Americans, American Indians, Mexican Americans and Puerto Rican Americans. Horber (1976) cited disproportionate special education placement of bilingual children in terms of both large numbers of educably mentally handicapped and under-representation in classes for the learning disabled.

Special education enrollment statistics proved basic to some lawsuits concerning linguistically different pupils. Diana v. the Board of Education (1970) was filed on behalf of Mexican American children who were or would be placed in Educably Mentally Retarded classes in California. The complaint alleged due to the use of culturally and linguistically biased assessment instruments, namely I.Q. tests, Mexican Americans were inappropriately placed. One month after filing of the complaint, District Court ordered the testing and re-testing of children in their primary languages and with nonverbal instruments. Decisions resulting from such litigation were among those which embraced educational legislation at the federal level in the form of the Bilingual Education Act of 1968 as amended by the Bilingual Education Act of 1978. (Plata and Santos, 1981).

In reviewing 6,069 school districts in the United States, the 1978 Elementary and Secondary Schools Civil Rights Survey performed a statistical test to determine whether the disproportionate representation of one or more groups of students in a program was significant. (Office of Civil Rights, 1978). If the assignment to program was done without regard to race, ethnicity, sex or other characteristic of interest then the proportionate enrollment will reportedly be hypergeometrically distributed (sampling without replacement) with a mean equal to the proportion that the group represents in the total school enrollment. If the numbers of students were not small (four or five) the distribution could, reportedly, be approximated by the binomial distribution (sampling with replacement) . This approach was employed as it is computationally more efficient. The significance level was set at two standard deviations away from the mean. If a group's proportion of the total school enrollment is p and if there are n pupils in the program in question, random (with respect to group membership) assignment to a program would result in an average of np members of that group in the program. Using the binomial distribution, the standard deviation from the mean would be $\sqrt{np(1-p)}$. Thus a group's representation was considered disproportionate if it was:

greater than $np + 2\sqrt{np(1-p)}$

less than $np - 2\sqrt{np(1-p)}$

Recent literature contains estimates as to the true size of the bilingual special education population. McCormick (1980) indicated that in light of the five million school age children whose parents native tongue is other than English reported by Reich (1975), a conservative estimate of five percent for children with learning disabilities suggests there must be at least 250,000 bilingual children with learning disabilities in this country. Baca (1981) projects 420,000 students of limited English proficiency with such handicaps as mental retardation, learning disabilities or hearing impairment nationwide. Martinez (1981) estimates twenty-five percent native Spanish speaking representation by the year 2000 with another seven percent native speakers of other than Spanish or English and indicates a proportionate number of this thirty-two percent may be expected to require special education.

Bergin (1980) reported that school districts experienced findings from a task force established jointly by the United States Office of Education and the Office of Civil Rights following the Lau v. Nichols (1974) decision on behalf of Asian Americans known as the Lau Remedies in the form of expanding bilingual programs However, bilingual teacher complaints about the increased placement of handicapped students in bilingual programs also surfaced. (Bergin, 1980). Further, Gavillan-Torres (1981) suggests that school personnel may fear using diagnostic instruments in which they have little confidence to label as handicapped a bilingual special education student. This is not to overlook the fact that it is not uncommon to still find many minority culture and/or bilingual students misdiagnosed and misplaced in special education programs. (Laosa, 1977; Plata and Santos, 1981).

A report developed at the request of the House Subcommittee on Select Education in 1981 described the Survey of Individual Education Programs (IEP) for Handicapped Children and the 1976 and 1978 Elementary and Secondary Schools Civil Rights Surveys as the two available sources for examining the racial/ethnic proportions of children receiving special education. The Civil Rights surveys, however, appear most visible in reviewing the literature. Brown, Hill and others (1978) reported Hispanics and whites participated in classes for the handicapped consistent with their percentage enrollment in the total school population citing state and national summaries of data collected by the 1976 Civil Rights Survey. Martinez

(1981) noted the Civil Rights Surveys as identifying 172,763 Hispanics in the United States with physical and nonphysical handicapping conditions in 1976 and reporting 173,863 in 1978. The aforementioned House Subcommittee emphasized the Civil Rights Survey in it's reporting and identified it as the stronger data source as it provides a higher percentage coverage of Blacks, Hispenic , Asian American and American Indian pupils, unlike the IEP survey. Proportions of black, white and Hispanic representation, reportedly, did not change substantially from 1976 to 1978. The 1978 Office of Civil Rights data shows over-representation of minority children in some categories when compared with the white majority and under-representation in others, all of which varied by ethnic/racial group.

Black special education pupils were clearly over-represented in programs for the educably mentally handicapped, over forty percent. They were also reported as the top proportion (six percent) participating in programs for the emotionally disturbed and the trainably mentally handicapped (4.7 percent). These students, however, demonstrated lower proportional representation in learning disabled and speech programs than any of the racial/ethnic groups. (House Subcommittee, 1981).

American Indian children represented a smaller proportion of trainable mentally handicapped students than any other racial/ethnic group. On the other hand, the proportion of special education American Indian students in learning disabled programs was reported as greater than any other racial/ethnic group.

Asian Americans have the highest proportion of special education participation in programs for the speech impaired (almost fifty percent). In contrast, they have the lowest proportion of participation in programs for educably mentally handicapped or emotionally disturbed students.

As noted earlier, Hispanic special education proportions are similiar to those of whites. In comparison to whites, however, Hispanic children appear slightly under-represented in programs for the educably mentally handicapped and speech impaired.

Finally, projected data from National Summaries of the more recent, 1980, Elementary and Elementary and Secondary Schools Civil Rights survey, reports enrollment as American Indian .8 percent, Asian American 1.9 percent, Hispanic 8.0 percent and Black American 16.1 percent. Black special education students represented 38.7 percent of the EMR classes and16 percent of LD. American Indians were .9 percent EMR and 1.0 LD.while Asian Americans were .4 percent EMR, 1.5 speech impaired and .8 percent LD.

General Language Minority Population Data

Grant and Eiden (1982) reported school enrollment data by race or ethnicity citing unpublished data from the 1980 Elementary and Secondary Schools Civil Rights Survey as their source. Nationally, Hispanics represented eight percent (3,179,345), Asian or Pacific Islanders 1.9 percent (749,003) and American Indian/Alaskan Native .8 percent (305,730). Notes, however, indicated the survey tabulations excluded approximately 1,152,000 not reported by race or ethnicity. Census data of 1970 suggested approximately ten percent of the school-age population of the United States natively spoke a language other than English while an even greater number possessed a limited understanding of English. (Sabatino and others, 1972). Throughout recent literature considerable reference is made to the Spring 1976 Survey of Income and Education in defining the demography of non-English language background persons in the United States. Brown, Hill and others (1978) from this survey indicated five million of the now approximately twenty-eight million persons with native languages other than English or living in households in which languages other than English were spoken were children. Of school-age (six to eighteen) one in ten reportedly have such a language background. Mowder (1979) indicated that while the Bureau of Census in a report issued in 1976 estimates that well over one million school children have a primary language other than English, they grossly underestimate the figures for those who are bilingual. She also reports that the percent of bilinguals of elementary and secondary age (four to seventeen) varies within each language group. Only five percent of persons whose usual language was Italian were school age while twenty-one percent of those who were predominately Spanish fell in the range of school age.

Spanish language background persons constitute the largest portion, approximately one-third, of the total language minority population. Other language minorities in the United States included nearly three million each of Italian and German origin, nearly two million French and two million whose language backgrounds were Chinese, Filipino, Japanese, Korean or Vietnamese. Further, Hispanics represented sixty percent of the school age language-minority group and six percent of the total pupil enrollment in the fifty states and the District of Columbia or three million students. Reflective of their proportion of the general Hispanic population in the United States, Mexican American children comprised sixty-three percent of the Hispanic school enrollment. Puerto Rican children account for fifteen percent. Cuban and Central or South American children each account for five percent and the remaining eleven percent were "other Hispanics." (Brown, Hill and others, 1978).

Okura (1979) indicated that Asian and Pacific Americans include Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Filipino, East Indian, Pakistani, Thai, Hawaiian, Guamanian and Samoans from the United States Trust Territories in the Pacific and Cambodians, Vietnamese and other Indo Chinese "refugees," thus constituting approximately four million people. The lack of statistics on Asian American youth was cited throughout the literature. The data upon which one must rely for a profile of this group appears to be that which was collected in connection with the 1970 census. (Mariano, 1979). Takei (1981) reports that before 1965 most Asian and Pacific American young people were acculturated second and third generation Americans. However, the number of foriegn born, limited English speaking children of Asian and Pacific background in the schools began to increase steadily after that year.

Hispanics are generally younger than the total white population with a median age of 22.1 years for Hispanics in 1978 as opposed to 30.6 years for whites. (Brown, Hill and others, 1978). Hispanics also, reportedly, have larger families. Nearly sixteen percent of Hispanic families have six or more family members, more than double the percentage of nonHispanic households. Among Hispanic subgroups, mean family size is largest for Mexican Americans.

Finally, undercount of minority groups was cited in the literature. Brown, Hill and others(1978) reported the U.S. Civil Rights Commission's assertion that Hispanics are seriously undercounted in all census surveys. The Census Bureau was noted to acknowledge undercount problems and estimated the undercount of Hispanics in the 1970 Decennial Census as somewhere between that of whites (1.9 percent) and that of blacks (7.7 percent).

Geographic Location/Residential Patterns

National Center for Education Statistics (1978) reported geographic distribution of language minorities in the United States in 1976. Language minorities were located in every state of the union. Overall, such persons constituted at least ten percent of the total population of twenty-three states. Seven states had more than one million and seven had between 500,000 and one million. One out of five Spanish language background persons were located in five states of the Southwest: Arizonia, California, Colorado, New Mexico and Texas. Hispanics accounted for 36 percent of the population of New Mexico and 21 percent of the Texas population. These five southwestern states plus New York, Florida, Illinois and New Jersey account for ninety percent of the Spanish language background group in the United States. Further, Mexican Americans are concentrated in the southwest with some residing in Illinois. Puerto Ricans are concentrated in the Northeast, particularly New York, New Jersey and Illinois. Cubans reside in large numbers in the south, especially Florida. More than one-fourth of French language background persons live in Louisana and another forty percent in the northwest, principally, Maine, Massachusetts and New York. Each of ten widely separated states had persons of German language backgrounds. Almost forty percent of persons with Chinese, Japanese, Filipino, Korean or Vietnamese language backgrounds live in California. Other language concentrations of Asian language background reside in Hawaii and New York. These three states account for sixty percent of this population. With specific regard to school age children, nearly one-half of this group in New Mexico were from nonEnglish language backgrounds.

Such children made up more than a quarter of the school age population in Arizonia, Texas and Hawaii. In nine other states, children were at least ten percent of their age group.; Conneticut, New Jersey, Rhode Island, Florida, Maryland, Alaska, New York, Colorado, California.

Finally, Hispanics are concentrated in the central cities according to the 1978 Bureau of the Census data. Eighty five percent reported living in metropolitan areas. Half of all Hispanic families live in central cities while only one-fourth of all non-Hispanics reside within central cities.

Socioeconomic Ties

The House Select Education Subcommittee report of 1981 reiterates the assumption that racial/ethnic proportions of students in special education should not differ from the racial/ethnic proportions of the general student enrollment. It, however, goes on to indicate the absence of studies addressing the question of whether there are any etiological reasons for expecting group difference in rates of handicapping conditions. The need to eliminate reasonable non-educational explanations for enrollment findings is therefore presented. Put in a larger socio-economic context it , reportedly, might be found that certain groups characterized by inadequate housing and poor health/nutrition have a relatively high rate of at-risk infants. Further, Chinn (1979) reports the relation of cultural diversity to exceptionality is one that has frequently generated discussion and debate. It is reportedly often questionable whether educational services appropriately provide for the cultural difference that may accompany the handicap. Watson and Van Etten (1977) questioned whether disproportionate numbers of culturally and linguistically different students in special education can be accounted for by interaction between ethnic and socio-economic variables.

Mariano (1979) indicated that Asian American conditions and needs remain undocumented on a national, regular and reliable basis. The idea that Asian Americans are economically successful has permeated popular and social science literature for years. (U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, 1980). Mariano (1979) reports that at first glance census data may suggest a group which is well off in terms of income, employment, education and returns to school. Much of the literature has focused upon the relatively high levels of educational attainment of Asian Americans. In 1970, the median number of years of school completed was 12.1 years with the exception of Filipino men, however, this figure was equaled or exceeded by the five groups of Asian Americans for which data was collected. The proportion of Asian Americans who were college graduates also exceeded the proportion among majority Americans. (U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, 1980). On the other hand, among majority Americans 4.8 percent male and 4.1 percent female had fewer than five years schooling with this proportion exceeded by all included groups of Asian Americans except Japanese Americans. Filipino American males with fewer than five years of education established a proportion more than three times that of majority Americans. Mariano (1979) suggests the need for several adjustments to Asian American census information after which a different picture is anticipated. showing a clearly disadvantaged group. Examples given indicate Filipino and Chinese men are no better off than blacks with regard to median income in standard statistical areas such as Los Angeles, San Francisco, New York, Chicago and Honolulu where there are high concentrations of Asian Americans. Further, the Asian unemployment rate is low but this is described as due to the willingness of many Asian Americans to work in low status, low income jobs for which they are over qualified.

de los Santos (1981) reports that general demographic data as well as, regional and national longitudinal studies reveal that Hispanic participation and success in all levels of the education process is not proportional to the ratio of Hispanics in the total population. A Current Population Report on relative progress of children through school in 1976 indicated significantly greater enrollment below typical grade level for one's age were found for youth of Spanish origin and living in 1) poor families in metropolitan, central cities or in nonmetropolitan areas of the south 2) families maintained by an adult who had completed less than high school 3) households in which the usual language was not English. (Bureau of Census, 1979). Hispanics aged 14 to 19 appear twice as likely not to have completed high school as whites in the same age bracket. (Hill and others, 1978). Hill (1978) also reported income data. The median income for Hispanics was 5,564 compared with 6,484 for nonHispanics in 1977. The relative standing of Hispanics would probably be lowered if comparative data with just whites were available. Hispanic families with incomes below poverty level in 1977 were 21.4 percent in contrast of 8.7 percent of nonHispanic families. According to Hill (1978) there were approximately 4.8 million Hispanics in the labor force in 1978 with unemployment rate twice that of whites 9.1 percent versus 5.2 percent.

Johnson (1980) described Indian American handicapped children as disproportionately represented among the poor in the United States and largely isolated from urban areas. Dissatisfactory educational status/achievement of this group is apparent in the literature. Trosper (1981) citing the Bureau of Census 1976 Survey of Income and Education, compares American Indians and Alaskan Natives with majority whites. The sample size, however, was presented as a research concern. Rates of return to school were comparatively lower for Indian men than white men. Indian men and white women were similar in all comparisons. Further, Indian heads of house hold living on reservations had significantly higher labor market participation than those not on reservations. Finally, a study by the United States General Accounting Office of 1977 at higher education institutions enrolling approximately 2,000 Indian students showed that they had lower assessment test scores and grade point averages, especially the freshman level students.

Questions, Issues and Concerns

Recent attention to the size of the bilingual special education population in the U.S.,appears associated with more diverse questions, issues and concerns. These appear in need of consideration prior to the emergence of a more reliable picture.

According to the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights (1980), districts often submitted incomplete, inaccurate and inconsistent enrollment data. In particular, many districts reported totals that did not agree with computed totals based on race/ethnicity or sex. Bergin (1980) questions whether linguistically different youngsters are being excluded from appropriate special education programs due to a school's fear of litigation and/or lack of resources. Further, as expressed earlier in this report, misdiagnose is still a noteworthy factor. (Laosa, 1977; Plata and Santos, 1981). The House Select Committe on Education also suggests that considerable evidence indicates that there are in-school children who need but are not receiving special education services. The data is, however, reported as currently inadequate to estimate the size of this group. Among Indian Americans, nineteen schools associated with the Navajo and Phoenix area offices of the Bureau of Indian Affairs with a total of 883 handicapped students showed 49 percent receiving no service. (Comptroller General of the U.S., 1979).

Despite the continued presence of the prevalence in special education consistent with the regular education enrollment or school age population ratio, questions regarding the interaction between ethnic and socioeconomic variables and special education need are quite visible. According to Watson and VanEtten (1977) a question to be investigated is whether there also existence a disproportionate number of minority group children in special education classes located in areas where the minority is representative of the upper socioeconomic bracket.

Information presented in this report is reflective of the variance in the literature with regard to the language component of the target population. Plata and Santos (1981) simply define it as linguistically different. Baca and Bransford (1981) suggest the term Limited English proficiency going on to indicate it s reference to a student who comes from a home in which a language other than English is most relied upon for communication and who has sufficient difficulty in understanding, speaking, reading or writing the English language. McCormick (1980), on the other hand, is addressing children whose bilingualism may be "occult". Such children may speak without an accent but maintain specific difficulties with English usage and grammar, misunderstand idiomatic expressions, have decreased reading skills etc. In addition, words of the mother tongue are more richly saturated with meaning for bilinguals than the translation equivalent of the second language. McCormick (1980) assumes that children with developmental immaturities might be additionally handicapped in school if they were from a bilingual home environment.

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Baca, L. & Bransford, J. Meeting the needs of the bilingual handicapped child. Momentum, 1981, 26-51.

The authors review information relevant to bilingual special education. Legal background is presented along with definition of types of bilingual programs and existing programs are identified as evidence of success in bilingual special education. The position of parocial schools is given considerable attention.

Bergin, V. Special education needs in bilingual programs. National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, Arlington Va., 1980.

Survey of the legal and educational developments that have focused attention on the child with limited English who also is physically handicapped or emotionally disturbed and describes some of the current methods being used to deal with the child. One section presents basic principles which guide the design of any staff training program. One model for teacher training, Diagnostic Special Education Personnel Preparation Program, is described. Descriptions of 18 bilingual special education programs were also presented.

Bilingual, bicultural child and special education. Report of the Arizona Identification Model Task Force. ERIC Document Series, 1976.

A service model on special education for bilingual, bicultural handicapped features recommendations to local education agencies, to colleges and universities and to human services organizations.

Brown, G., Rosen, N., Hill, S. & Olizas, M. The condition of education for Hispanic Americans. National Center for Education Statistics, 1980.

Notes the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare "Hispanic Initiative" since mid-1977 developed to meet the special education, health and other needs of Hispanics. Overview of Hispanics in the United States is presented including language characteristics and problem of definition. Hispanic participation in education is given extensive coverage.

Bryen, D. Special education and the linguistically different child. Exceptional Children, 1974, 589-599.

Review of the condemnation of tests used for educational placement as linguistically and culturally biased. The linguistic deficit and the linguistic difference models are explored as possible explanation of the verbal behavior of linguistically different children. In addition, educational implications of each model are discussed.

Bureau of Indian affairs special education opportunities for exceptional children, youth and adults: The first annual report to the Department of the Interior. Bureau of Indian Affairs, ERIC Document Series, 1980.

The first annual report (1979) of the Bureau of Indian Affairs Advisory Committee for Exceptional Children reflects activities, concerns and recommendations to the Department of the Interior for providing appropriate specialized services for education of the projected 4,506 American Indian and Alaska Native exceptional children.

Chinn, P. The exceptional minority child:Issues and some answers. The Council for Exceptional Children, 1979, 532-536.

The primary focus of this article is described as an attempt to suggest that for many expectional minority children there are educational needs that have not been provided for. Among issues addressed are the relationship of cultural diversity to exceptionality; identifying the exceptional minority child and funding and meeting the issues. Finally efforts which can facilitate the educational process for exceptional minorities in the meantime are suggested under the subheadings of developing positive self-concepts, fostering motivation and developing teacher sensitivity.

Civil Rights Issues of Asian and Pacific Americans: Myths & Realities. (A consultation sponsored by the United States Commission on Civil Rights) Washington, D.C., 1979.

Presentation and evaluation of demographic data and general perceptions associated with Asian Americans as a group.

de los Santos, A., Hispanics and community colleges. Topical paper no. 18. Center for the Study of Higher Education. Arizona University, Tucson, 1980.

Demographic data is suggested as indicative of Hispanic receipt of programs and services at the community college level at an unfair degree. The proportion of Hispanics who graduate is significantly less than that of whites. Attempts to ameliorate this situation are suggested.

Diagnosis and intervention in bilingual special education: Searching for new alternatives: Proceedings. (edited version of papers presented at statewide conference on bilingual special education planning project) Boston, Mass., ERIC Document Series, 1978.

Papers include : Cultural diversity, Implications for change; A ten point plan for special education for the Hispanic child; and Vocational plans for bilingual special education.

Disparities still exist in who gets special education. Report to the Chairman, Subcommittee on Select Education, Committee on Education and Labor, House of Representatives by the Comptroller General of the United States. ERIC Document Series, 1981.

The report examines the impact of P.L. 94-142, the Education for all Handicapped Children Act, and other federal laws on the numbers and types of handicapped children who receive special services. Five issues are addressed in separate chapters: the numbers and characteristics of students receiving special education; the number of unserved eligible children; overrepresentation of learning disabled as well as minority students; and factors influencing who receives special education including state definitions and eligibility criteria.

Geographic distribution, nativity and age distribution of language minorities in the U.S.: Spring, 1976. National Center for Education Statistics Bulletin, Washington, D.C., 1978.

Findings released from the Spring 1976 Survey of Income and Education are summarized in regard to: proportions of language minorities in the U.S.; the largest language minority group; location of language minority persons; percentage of language minority persons in the various states etc.

Gordon, E. Disadvantaged populations. Yeshiva University, N. Y. Social Sciences, 1967.

The bulk of this bulletin is bibliography. It is presented in three primary sections including problems of the disadvantaged, demographic and status studies and social and cultural patterns.

Horber, J. The bilingual child with learning disabilities, 1976. ERIC Document Series.

Reviewed is research on the bilingual child with learning problems. It is suggested that appropriate tools for evaluation of bilingual children be developed andused and that specific remedial programs be planned for each child. It is reported that relatively little attention has been addressed to the specific needs of the bilingual child experiencing learning problems.

Johnson, M. (Ed.) Planning services for young handicapped American Indians and Alaska Native Children. North Carolina University, Chapel Hill, 1980.

Eight papers examine issues in providing special education services to young native Americans with handicaps. The first paper considers the needs of young children as well as such programming aspects as culture and tribal involvement. A subsequent paper discusses principles and systems for child evaluation programs. Twenty-one brief program descriptions are presented and guidelines for designing and in-service training are also present.

Kim, L. Korean Americans: An emerging immigrant community. Civil Rights Digest, 1976, 42-43.

Highlights the major characteristics of the Korean American population and lists some of their most pressing problems and needs.

McCormick, D. "Occult" Bilingualism in children with school problems Journal of School Health, 1980, 84-87.

The relationship of bilingualism to learning disabilities and the incidence of bilingual children referred for medical evaluation of developmental problems is discussed.

Martinez, D. Hispanics in 1979--A statistical appraisal. Agenda 1979, 21-24.

This article discusses the state of the Hispanic community in early 1979. In light of P.L. 94-311 of 1976 calling for the expansion of statistics reflecting the socioeconomic status of Hispanics, this article addressing one agency's difficulties in implementing this mandate and the status of other agencies in working on the law's requirement.

Martinez, H. (Ed) Special education and the Hispanic child. Proceedings from the Annual Colloquium on Hispanic Issues. ERIC/Cue Urban Diversity Series Number 74, 1981.

Collection of papers examining contemporary issues and problems in bilingual special education. Papers include:
-Cantress - Jose P. and the right to bilingual special education
-Weffer- Factors to be considered when assessing bilingual Hispanics.
-Gavillan-Torres - Preliminary report on a project to examine the state of the art in assessment of Hispanic children suspected of handicaps.

Mowder, B. Assessing the bilingual handicapped student. Psychology in the Schools, 1979, 43-50.

This paper reports that federal legislation demands that bilingual children be assessed in their primary language or mode of communication. It, therefore, explores the issues involved in assessing bilingualism and handicapping conditions (e.g. learning disabilities) of bilingual, culturally different children and evaluates the assessment methods that have been devised.

O'Connor, M. Equal educational opportunity for Puerto Ricans. National Institute of Education. ERIC Document Series, 1976.

This article discusses the marginalization of Puerto Ricans in the United States. Educational disadvantages are a primary focus. Educational opportunities are presented in respect to several major cities. Ethnic, geographic and demographic dimensions in the U.S. and the colony are presented.

Okura, P. Comparative study of Asian children and learning difficulties. (paper presented at the International Conference of Association for Children with Learning Disabilities) ERIC Document Series, 1979.

The reported prevalence of learning disabilities in the United States is explored and compared with that associated with China and Japan. L.D. has become one of the most serious afflictions of childhood in the U.S. In contrast, educators and other proressors in China and Japan report that dyslexia is rather rare in their countries with the exception of cases of clear neurological dysfunction. Response to this includes some researchers challenge of this discrepancy. However, the presence of studies indicating that differences in cognitive abilities do exist are also noted with focus on explanation and implication of such differences.

Persons of Spanish origin in the United States; March 1978(Advance report) Population characteristics, Current population reports, Series P-20, No. 328 Bureau of Census, Suitland Maryland Population Division

This report presents advance data collected in March 1978 by the Census Bureau on the demographic, social and economic characteristics of persons of Spanish origin. Characteristics presented include age, sex, educational attainment, employment status, and income.

Place of birth and language characteristics of person of Hispanic origin in the United States, Spring 1976. National Center for Education Statistics Bulletin, Washington D.C., 1978.

Some findings from the spring 1976 Survey of Income and Education are reported. Population size and degree of spanish language maintence and usage were outlined. Report subheadings included Hispanic origin subgroups; nativity; current language and source of data.

Plata, M & Santos, C. Bilingual special education: A challenge for the future. The Council for Exceptional Children, 1981, 97-99.

Primary focus is definition of bilingual special education and service delivery models. A comprehensive self-study format is offered in order for local education agencies to initiate responsible actions toward the development of an appropriate curriculum for bilingual handicapped pupils.

Prewitt, D. A selected bibliography of bilingual special education. ERIC Document Series, 1982.

This is a bibliography of research on bilingual/special education for children in preschool through high school. Most of the references are journal articles written within the last five years or documents available from the Educational Resource Information Center(ERIC). Cited are works on cognitive development, language development, intelligence and intelligence testing, learning problems, educational needs, psychological characteristics and cultural/social backgrounds of children from minority ethnic groups.

Project BUILD "Bilingual understanding incorporates learning disabilities." An ES A Title VII Basic Bilingual Education Program. Community District 4. Final evaluation report 1979-1980. ERIC Document Series.

This project was established in September, 1976 in New York Community School District 4. This evaluation study represents it's fourth year of operation. It is a unique bilingual program in that it is a combination of special education and bilingual education methdologies and concerns. The main aim is provision of appropriate supplemental education treatment for bilingual children with learning disabilities.

Ramirez, B., Hockenberry, C., & McCall, C. Special education policies for American Indian and Alaska Native exceptional students: A development and resource guide. Council for Exceptional Children. Reston, Va, 1980/82

Focus is the movement to expand and refine special education policy and programs as it relates to state(public), Bureau of Indian Affairs, tribal or Indian community controlled and cooperative school systems serving American Indians and Alaska Natives residing in and on reservations. Additional challenge involves provision of services consistent with the cultural needs of these exceptional children. This is further complicated by the presence of Indian communities in rural, isolated and sometimes remote settings.

Reich, M. A comparison of scholastic achievement of Mexican American pupils in regular and bilingual groups in Chicago public elementary school (1974-75 school year), 1975 ERIC reports.

The success of the bilingual program was evaluated by comparing two groups of Mexican American elementary pupils in the same school. One group attended regular classes. The bilingual group was students whose knowledge of English was extremely weak.

Relative progress of children in school: 1976. Current Population Reports, Population Characteristics, Series p-20, No. 337. Bureau of Census, 1979.

This report provides information on factors that are associated with children's progress through elementary and high school. Factors investigated included sex, race, Spanish origin, language ability, metropolitan-nonmetropolitan residence, poverty status and educational attainment of head of household.

Rodriguez, R. Issues in bilingual/multicultural special education. ERIC Document Series, 1981.

Discussion of the inadequacy, inappropriateness of bilingual special education programs as well as the unsystematic approach to such.There are some recommendations also including numbers of professionals adequately equipped to assess this population and the importance of utilization of minority professionals.

Sabatino, D. & Hayden, K. Perceptual, language and academic achievement of English, Spanish and Navajo speaking children referred for special classes. Journal of School Psychology, 1972, 39-46.

Purpose of this study was identified as determination of perceptual, language and academic functions of english, spanish and navajos referred for special placement. Test variables which discriminated among native English speakers and those who spoke native Spanish or Navajo were as predicted, those tasks which involved knowledge of linguistic rules of English.

Spanish Americans in the United States - Changing Demographic Characteristics. Research Institute for the Study of Man. ERIC Document Series, 1976.

Changes in socioeconomic and demographic characteristics were examined using primarily the 1970 census data.

Spiridakis, J. Special education for the Greek bilingual child: Greece, Cypurus and the United States. (paper presented for the Council for Exceptional Children Conference on the Exceptional Bilingual Child), New Orleans, LA ERIC Document Series, 1981.

Severely limited resources for Greek speaking children are suggested for those in the U.S. and abroad. The general condition of Greek bilingual special education is articulated along with suggestions for future action.

Squires, G. Bridging the gap: a reassessment. Minnesota State Advisory Committee to the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights. ERIC Document Series, 1978

This is an assessment of a 1975 report on issues in Indian education and employment in the Twin Cities. Data indicates that little progress has been made.

Survey of school programs and practices, 1980. National Education Association Memo. Washington D.C. Research Division. ERIC Document Series, 1980

The associations 1980 survey involved sending questionnaires to 805 representative school systems. Among topical areas explored were provisions for educating the handicapped and nature of written plans for ending racial and sexual discrimination.

Takei, Y. Asian-Pacific Education after Brown and Lau. ERIC Document Series, 1981.

Report explores Asian and Pacific Americans in the areas of employment, housing, education and social service. Differentiation as to the degree of assimilation into American society before and after 1965 was made and explored in regard to the areas of concern.

The Bureau of Indian Affairs is Slow in Providing Special Education to all Handicapped Indian Children. Comptroller General of the U.S., Washington D.C. ERIC Document Series, 1979.

The Navajo and Phoenix area offices are used as examples in review of the progress of the Bureau of Indian Affairs in achieving the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975. Some progress is noted. However areas lacking progess were documented and recommendations made.

The education of Hispanics. Proceedings Midwest Conference. Chicago, IL. ERIC Document Series, 1980.

The report summarizes the proceedings of the Midwest Conference on the Education of Hispanics, the last of a series of five regional working conferences sponsored by the U.S. Department of Education. Among nine individual presentations and discussions were 1)the exceptional Hispanic child and 2)bilingual special education.

Trosper, R. Indian Education, Wages and Labor Supply. ERIC Document Series, 1981.

Data from the 1976 Bureau of Census National Survey of Income and Education was the source of information. Comparison of the 3,848 American Indians and Alaskan Natives included in the survey were made with whites on the basis of wages, labor force participation and education.

United States Commission on Civil Rights. Success of Asian American Fact or Fiction. Clearinghouse Publication No. 69, 1980.

Exploration of the basis and validity of the idea that Asian Americans are economically successful. The 1970 census data is addressed in such areas as occupation, income and levels of education.

Waggoner, D. Language and demographic characteristics of the U.S. population with potential need for bilingual and other special educational programs. National Center for Education Statistics. ERIC Document Series, 1975.

This report summarized the language background information and certain demographic characteristics of language minorities in the United States. The data was derived from the Survey of Languages, a pilot study of the non-English language background population aged four and older sponsored by the National Center for Education Statistics.

1975-76 LAU compliance evaluation report. report No. Seattle Public Schools, Washington Department of Management Information Services. ERIC Document Series, 1977.

Data collected during the 1975-76 school year in Seattle as part of the school district's activities to comply with the Lau v Nicholas Supreme Court decision by categorizing students according to language background. It also contains a comparison of achievement gains between English fluent and limited English ability students after the introduction of bilingual services.

1978 Elementary and secondary schools civil rights survey: analysis of selected civil rights issues. vol. 1 Reports on ranked districts for the nation. Killalea Associates, Inc., Arlington, Va. ERIC Documents Series, 1978.

This report is drawn from a 1978-79 survey of 6,069 school districts in 50 states regarding their compliance with Federal desegregation and equal education laws. Among the areas considered were; pupils identified as requiring special education services but not currently enrolled; disproportionate representation of minorities in special education.

1979-80 LAU year end report. Los Angeles Unified School District Pub. No. 379. ERIC Document Series, 1980.

This second annual year end report summarizes the efforts in the Los Angeles Unified School district on behalf of children whose primary language is not English. The response is documented in the form of programs in English as well as the students native language. Major divisions of the LAU plan included; identification of national origin of minority students and assessment of their needs as well as special education programs.

1980 Elementary and secondary schools civil rights survey, national summaries. DBS Corp., Arlington Va. ERIC Document Series, 1982.

National summary of data on the characteristics of students in United States public schools based upon the fall 1980 Civil Rights Survey. Table 1 presents national projections of survey data and table 2 includes survey data on which projections were based. The survey attended to such areas as enrollment, participation in special education and bilingual programs, and high school graduation on the basis of student's sex, ethnic group and disability.

1980 Elementary and secondary schools civil rights survey, state summaries. Vol. I & II. DBS Corp, Arlington Va. ERIC Document Series, 1982.

Fall 1980 Civil Rights Survey data on students enrolled in the United States public schools by state.

1980 Resolutions: national association for Asian and Pacific American education. National Association for Asian and Pacific American Education, Berkeley, California. ERIC Document Series, 1980.

This paper contains nineteen resolutions adopted by the national association regarding Asian and Pacific Americans. Among resolution concerns were 1) the maintenance of Asian/Pacific American linguistic and cultural traditions by educational institutions, 2) increased funding of multicultural education and 3) increased collection of data on this group

Watson, B. & Van Etten, C. (Ed.) Programs, materials and techniques Bilingualism and special education. Journal of Learning Dis abilities, 1977, 331-332.

Focus on the examination of variables necessary for the successful functioning of the linguistically and culturally different child. This article is presented as an introduction to a more lengthy report reviewing social policy and it's relation to the the education of linguistically and culturally different groups in the United States both past and present.

Table 1

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION OFFICE FOR CIVIL RIGHTS
1980 ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS CIVIL RIGHTS SURVEY
NATIONAL SUMMARY OF PROJECTED DATA

NUMBER OF DISTRICTS 11269
NUMBER OF SCHOOLS 77844

		AM IND	ASIAN	HISP	BLACK	MINORITY	WHITE	TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE	HANDI	LEP
ENROLLMENT :	NUMBER	308730	740003	3179248	6418194	10662126	29180416	39832482	20442966	19390299	1119768	9 1936
	PERCENT	0.8	1.9	8.0	16.1	26.7	73.3	100.0	51.3	48.7	8.3	2
EXPULSIONS :	NUMBER	1811	373	12432	26034	42636	85868	128461	88468	38831	3890	N/
	PERCENT OF TOTAL	1.4	0.3	9.7	20.4	30.8	68.2	100.0	71.2	30.8	2.3	N/
	PARTICIPATION RATE	6.3	0.5	4.2	4.2	4.0	3.3	3.5	4.6	2.1	0.9	N/
SUSPENSIONS :	NUMBER	13326	12377	184146	633074	811744	1318044	2130747	1470148	660456	58198	N/
	PERCENT OF TOTAL	0.6	0.6	7.2	29.7	38.1	61.9	100.0	69.4	31.0	2.7	N/
	PARTICIPATION RATE	40.3	16.4	48.5	98.6	76.2	45.2	53.5	72.4	34.1	17.5	N/
CORP PUNISHMENT :	NUMBER	9513	2684	91718	403306	507232	901022	1408206	1134877	273232	48219	N/
	PERCENT OF TOTAL	0.7	0.2	6.5	28.6	36.0	64.0	100.0	80.6	19.4	3.4	N/
	PARTICIPATION RATE	31.1	3.6	28.8	62.9	47.6	30.9	35.4	55.5	14.1	14.5	N/
GIFTED/TALENTED	NUMBER	3386	28310	48249	82980	164920	840424	1024912	494700	530085	N/A	N/
	PERCENT OF TOTAL	0.3	2.8	4.7	8.1	16.0	82.0	100.0	48.3	51.8	N/A	N/
	PARTICIPATION RATE	11.1	92.5	15.2	14.0	17.3	28.8	25.7	24.2	27.4	N/A	N/
EMR :	NUMBER	8080	3277	29081	214812	247276	298731	545843	334820	221020	N/A	988
	PERCENT OF TOTAL	0.9	0.4	4.5	38.7	44.5	55.5	100.0	60.2	39.8	N/A	1
	PARTICIPATION RATE	16.8	3.0	7.9	33.5	23.2	10.8	14.0	16.4	11.4	N/A	6
TMR :	NUMBER	818	1120	7400	36228	28667	60377	94923	54168	40861	N/A	180
	PERCENT OF TOTAL	0.9	1.2	7.8	37.0	37.5	62.8	100.0	57.1	42.9	N/A	1
	PARTICIPATION RATE	2.7	1.8	2.3	4.1	3.3	3.0	2.4	2.6	2.1	N/A	8
SPEECH IMPAIR :	NUMBER	9821	13704	60096	128876	210275	687067	904068	566880	336498	N/A	20940
	PERCENT OF TOTAL	0.7	1.5	6.6	16.1	23.9	76.1	100.0	62.9	37.1	N/A	2
	PARTICIPATION RATE	19.4	18.3	18.9	21.3	20.3	23.6	22.7	27.8	17.2	N/A	21
SER EMOT DIST :	NUMBER	1400	708	11870	46090	60062	122102	182086	142212	40020	N/A	162
	PERCENT OF TOTAL	0.8	0.4	6.5	25.2	32.9	67.2	100.0	77.8	21.9	N/A	0
	PARTICIPATION RATE	4.6	0.9	3.7	7.2	5.6	4.2	4.6	7.0	2.1	N/A	1
SPEC LEARN DIS :	NUMBER	12304	10674	182278	201236	326470	934080	1260471	906869	353579	N/A	20411
	PERCENT OF TOTAL	1.0	0.8	8.1	16.0	25.9	74.1	100.0	71.9	28.1	N/A	1
	PARTICIPATION RATE	40.5	14.3	33.3	31.4	30.6	32.0	31.6	44.3	18.2	N/A	21
BILINGUAL :	NUMBER	15800	110804	642830	8620	780754	49647	830372	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/
	PERCENT OF TOTAL	1.9	13.9	77.4	0.0	94.0	6.0	100.0	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/
GRADUATES :	NUMBER	14073	38876	129987	329811	508180	2182838	2691108	1310414	1278684	56657	N/
	PERCENT OF TOTAL	0.5	1.4	4.8	12.1	18.9	81.1	100.0	48.9	51.1	2.0	N/
	PARTICIPATION RATE	46.0	52.0	40.8	50.7	47.7	74.8	67.5	64.3	71.0	16.5	N/

CHILDREN REQUIRING SPECIAL ED	3029884
CHILDREN RECEIVING SPECIAL ED	2888470
CHILDREN ATTENDING ELSEWHERE	330098
CHILDREN NOT EVALUATED	162490
CHILDREN NOT RECEIVING SERVICES	32610

SCHOOLS WITH ACCESSIBLE		
ENTRANCES	50611	
RESTROOMS	42124	
SCIENCE LABS	10204	
PUPILS IN WHEELCHAIRS		16477
ACCESSIBLE CLASSROOMS		1295810
TOTAL CLASSROOMS		1928201

	SINGLE SEX CLASSES		MIXED CLASSES	
	MALES	FEMALES	MALES	FEMALES
HOME ECONOMICS	18784	471040	892080	798867
INDUSTRIAL ARTS	524730	14773	1522148	851881
PHYSICAL ED	1887236	1495720	8803340	8072062

	MALES	FEMALES	NUMBER OF TEAMS
ALL FEMALE TEAMS		3376968	144814
ALL MALE TEAMS	4682979		196287
TEAMS WITH BOTH SEXES	338702	204844	34767

PARTICIPATION RATE IS THE RATE PER THOUSAND

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Table 1a.-Estimated numbers of persons with non-English-language backgrounds in the United States, by language and age group: Spring 1976

(Numbers in 1,000's)

Non-English-language background	Total	Age 5 and under	Age 6 to 18	Age 19 and older
Total	27,985	2,224	5,032	20,730
Selected European Languages	22,475	1,766	4,263	16,446
French	1,932	83	303	1,546
German	2,735	70	286	2,378
Greek	542	41	88	412
Italian	2,931	99	296	2,536
Polish	1,498	24	87	1,387
Portuguese	489	29	77	383
Russian	228	(a)	17	209
Scandinavian languages	661	(a)	29	624
Spanish	10,609	1,384	3,022	6,203
Yiddish	852	26	58	768
Selected Asian languages	1,842	220	301	1,321
Chinese	537	57	81	399
Filipino languages	522	69	103	351
Japanese	439	30	40	370
Korean	194	35	31	128
Vietnamese	150	30	46	74
Arabic	190	26	22	143
Navajo	159	22	54	83
Other languages	3,319	191	391	2,738

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[a] Less than an estimated 15,000 persons.

NOTE.—Detail may not add to total shown because of rounding.

SOURCE: Survey of Income and Education, conducted by the U.S. Bureau of the Census spring 1976.

Table 1.—Estimates of total population and of persons with non-English-language backgrounds and of total school-age children, 6 to 18, and school-age children with non-English-language backgrounds in the United States, by region and State: Spring 1976

(Numbers in 1,000's)

Region and State	Total population (all ages)	Population with non-English-language backgrounds		Total school-age children (age 6-18)	School-age children with non-English-language backgrounds	
		Number	Percent of total		Number	Percent of total
All States	211,317	27,9[illegible]	13	50,320	5,032	10
Northeast	48,870	9,184	19	11,267	1,333	12
Connecticut	3,083	587	19	716	77	11
Maine	1,080	136	13	250	22	8
Massachusetts	5,751	952	17	1,344	109	8
New Hampshire	818	123	15	200	17	8
New Jersey	7,264	1,375	19	1,697	182	11
New York	17,833	4,033	23	4,073	758	19
Pennsylvania	11,670	1,292	11	2,636	140	5
Rhode Island	953	196	21	206	21	10
Vermont	460	46	10	114	(*)	6
Southeast	51,958	2,980	6	12,677	320	4
Alabama	3,580	38	1	806	(*)	1
Arkansas	2,126	43	2	503	(*)	1
Delaware	576	40	7	140	(*)	4
Florida	8,408	1,177	14	1,818	194	11
Georgia	4,918	103	2	1,200	27	2
Kentucky	3,373	52	2	829	(*)	(**)
Louisiana	3,766	656	17	1,000	140	14
Maryland	4,089	295	7	900	40	5
Mississippi	2,329	25	1	615	(*)	1
North Carolina	5,383	80	2	1,291	22	2
South Carolina	2,785	67	2	733	(*)	1
Tennessee	4,188	46	1	971	(*)	1
Virginia	4,955	240	5	1,168	38	3
West Virginia	1,793	42	2	487	(*)	(**)
District of Columbia	683	50	8	143	(*)	6
North Central	57,082	5,084	9	13,980	808	6
Illinois	10,994	1,473	13	2,655	223	8
Indiana	5,268	303	5	1,283	67	6
Iowa	2,873	152	5	688	16	2
Kansas	2,228	135	6	520	22	4
Michigan	9,077	804	9	2,310	91	4
Minnesota	3,888	405	10	900	26	3
Missouri	4,787	199	4	1,098	26	2
Nebraska	1,530	121	8	387	16	4
North Dakota	642	98	16	162	(*)	6
Ohio	10,635	867	8	2,536	108	4
South Dakota	672	64	9	166	(*)	3
Wisconsin	4,538	426	10	1,140	27	2
Northwest	8,084	685	8	1,960	180	5
Alaska	366	58	16	90	13	13
Idaho	808	56	7	208	(*)	6
Montana	747	60	8	191	(*)	4
Oregon	2,293	160	7	526	23	5
Washington	3,583	285	8	820	39	5
Wyoming	387	31	8	98	(*)	6
Southwest	46,668	10,35	23	10,336	2,448	23
Arizona	2,276	533	23	555	164	29
California	20,707	5,221	25	4,780	1,180	23
Colorado	2,537	300	14	646	82	13
Hawaii	862	293	35	200	53	26
Nevada	608	73	12	146	(*)	9
New Mexico	1,139	507	46	350	156	40
Oklahoma	2,686	138	5	640	30	4
Texas	12,388	3,061	25	2,952	846	29
Utah	1,238	82	7	332	19	6

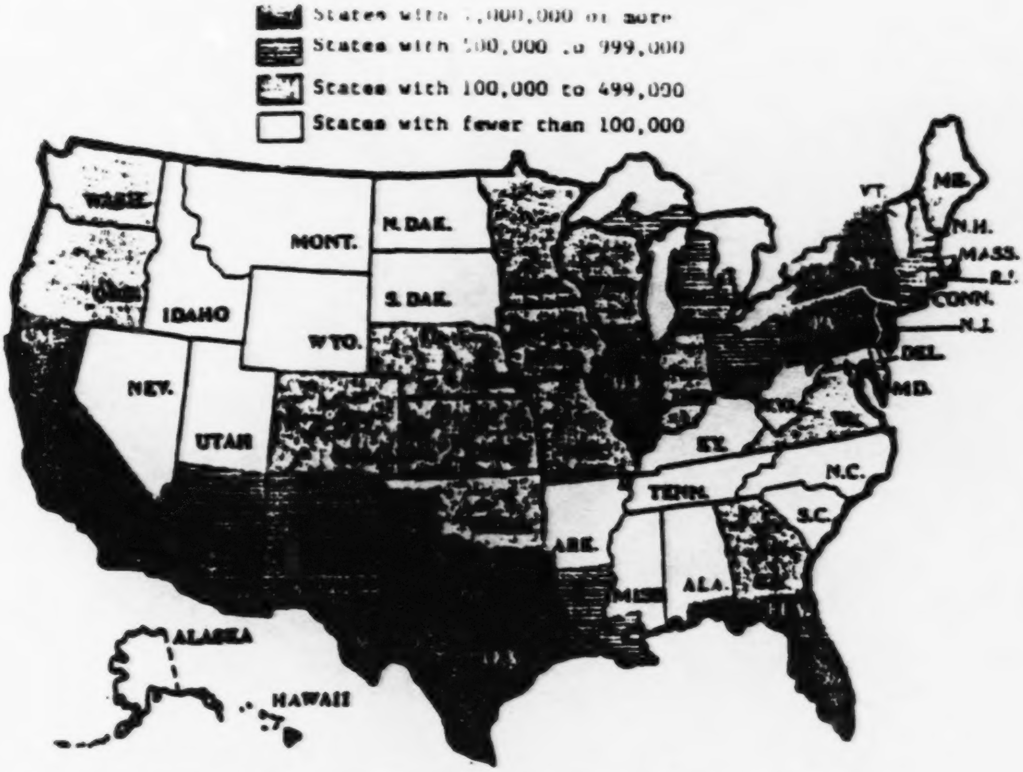
*Less than an estimated 15,000 persons.

**Less than an estimated 0.5 percent.

NOTE.—Detail may not add to total shown because of rounding.

SOURCE: Survey of Income and Education conducted by the U.S. Bureau of the Census, spring 1976

Location of Laguage-Minority Persons


States with 1,000,000 or more
States with 500,000 to 999,000
States with 100,000 to 499,000
States with fewer than 100,000
WASH.
ORE.
IDAHO
MONT.
N. DAK.
S. DAK.
WYO.
NEV.
UTAH
KY.
TENN.
N.C.
S.C.
ARK.
MISS.
ALA.
W.VA.
VA.
N.Y.
VT.
ME.
N.H.
MASS.
R.I.
CONN.
N.J.
DEL.
MD.
ALASKA
HAWAII

0 Language-minority persons were located in every State in the Union. However, seven States had more than a million language-minority persons, seven had between 500,000 and a million, and an additional 18 States had between 100,000 and 500,000 such persons.

0 Spanish-language background persons were located in all regions and States. However, three out of five were located in five States of the Southwest—Arizona, California, Colorado, New Mexico, and Texas. These five States plus New York, Florida, Illinois, and New Jersey accounted for about 90 percent of the Spanish-language background population.

0 More than one-fourth of French-language background persons lived in Louisiana, and another 40 percent in the States of the Northeast, principally Maine, Massachusetts, and New York.

0 Each of ten widely-separated States had 100,000 or more persons of German-language background.

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CHAPTER II

"A CRITICAL LOOK AT TESTING AND EVALUATION FROM A CROSS CULTURAL PERSPECTIVE"

INTRODUCTION

This research paper will first define and describe the target population and discuss the common problems in distinguishing a "disability" from a cultural or linguistic difference. Having defined this population and the specific problems in appropriately identifying these students as exceptional students, the author will then summarize the legal mandates impacting on the assessment of linguistically and culturally different students. Thirdly, a brief summary and review of the research on the uses and misuses of standardized assessment instruments will be presented. Fourthly, the most common approaches being practiced in the field of nondiscriminatory assessment will be described and critically analyzed. This study will then recommend viable alternative nondiscriminatory assessment and evaluation techniques, approaches, and recommended model practices. In summary, recommendations in the area of cross cultural assessment and evaluation will be made for local, state, and federal educators who are involved in either the development of policies or the implementation of services to culturally and linguistically different students who may or may not have exceptional needs.

WHO IS OUR TARGET POPULATION?

This research paper focuses on a group of children identified as linguistically and culturally different. This group is composed of children who are native speakers of a language other than English. It includes both children from immigrant families and children from native-born American families who speak languages other than English. It must be remembered in defining this population, that in defining a child as a member of a particular language group, one must not separate the language from the particular cultural context in which it is spoken. Different cultures may share a common language and yet vary greatly in cultural values: French speaking children from Haiti, Canada, and France represent very different cultural and linguistic populations.

Therefore, the term linguistic minority student refers to a student who is a native speaker of a language other than English. However, within this category there is wide diversity. The term may refer on one hand to those students of varying degrees of literacy who have just migrated with their families to the United States. It may refer to students who are living in the United States and learning both languages simultaneously. A third category is the second generation students who prefer to speak English at school and speak their native language within their own home. Finally, there are the migrant children who may be represented in any of the above descriptions. The following representation describes the continuum. (Advisory Board of Access, 1980)

Linguistic Minority

Recent Immigrant Students	Students in U.S. using two languages	Second Generation students prefer English - speak L_1 at home	Migrant Student
A	B	C	A,B,C

The term culturally and linguistically different exceptional children is defined as those individuals who exhibit discrepancies in growth and development due to health related impairments; hearing impairments; mental retardation; orthopedic related handicaps; serious emotional disturbances; learning disabilities; speech impairments; or visual impairments. (Advisory Board of Access, 1980). The linguistic levels of these children would fall at varying points on the following continuum.

Linguistic Levels of Exceptional Students

Monolingual L_1 (non English)	Dominant L_1 and some English (L_2)	Bilingual Students L_1 & L_2 (approximate equal proficiency developed) Semilingual L_1 & L_2 (approximate equally poorly developed)	English Dominant (L_2) with L_1 ability	Monolingual English (L_1 for this child)

On the left of the continuum are the monolingual speakers of the first language. Then we have the dominant L_1 speakers who have some English ability. In the middle of the continuum are the apparent bilingual students with comparable proficiency in both languages. Many of our exceptional students fall within the middle of this continuum and "semilinguals". A child defined as a semilingual is a child who is displaying equally poor ability in both languages. This kind of student is unable to perform cognitive tasks in either language. According to Cummins (1976), his/her threshold level of language development that is needed for this child to function academically has not been reached. Next on the continuum are the English dominant students with some L_1 ability.

Finally, there is the monolingual English students.

Although categorical definitions of students have often served to label students, isolate them, and deny them equal access to educational programs, because these categories are used throughout school systems in the United States and are the basis for establishing funding under P.L. 94.142 (The Education for the Handicapped Act), a brief description of each of the major categories will be presented from the perspective of serving the linguistic minority exceptional student.

The first widely used category is that of mental retardation. According to the American Association of Mental Deficiency (AAMD):

> "Mental retardation refers to significantly sub-average general intellectual functioning existing concurrently with deficits in adaptive behavior and manifested during the developmental period."
> (Grossman, 1971)

In this definition, intellectual functioning refers to results of individual intelligence tests and significantly sub-average refers to an I.Q. score more than two standard deviations below the mean. Adaptive behavior refers to the degree to which the individual meets personal independence and social responsibility expected of his age and cultural group. (Grossman, 1977)

The socio-economic and cultural and linguistic bias of standardized tests, particularly I.Q. tests, has led to questioning the value of using these tools with limited English proficient students as well as with other cultural and linguistic minority students. (Cole, 1981; Olmedu, 1981; Garcia, 1981; Reschly, 1981; Laosa, 1977; Oakland and Matuszek, 1977; and others)

Mercer (1971) discovered that of those persons who would have been labelled as mentally retarded if their classification depended solely on test scores, a full 84% had completed eight grades or more in school, 83% had held a job, 80% were financially independent or a housewife, and almost 100% were able to do their own shopping or travel alone.

Culturally and linguistically different students are most affected by the process of standardized testing. Unfamiliar test content, attitudes of the examiners, unfamiliar with the child's culture, the students limited proficiency in English, language variations, unfamiliarity with test conditions, and lack of motivation to perform well on the test are all critical factors that influence a student's performance on standardized tests. Therefore, the label mental retardation traditionally arrived at through intelligence tests is a very misused classification with linguistic, cultural and racial minority students.

A second exceptional category is the behaviorally disordered. According to Rhodes and Tracy (1972), characteristics of behaviorally disordered students fall into two categories: hyperactive-aggressive and fearful-withdrawn. Some characteristics that appear in many definitions are: inability to learn that can not be explained by other factors, difficulty in relating to others, inappropriate behavior under normal circumstances, general unhappiness, and development of physical symptoms for personal issues. (Ambert, Dew, 1982)

Linguistic minority students, particularly recent immigrants, undergo extreme stress and culture shock and exhibit, temporarily, signs of behavior disorders. In addition, culturally different students, who may be behaving appropriately for their own cultural group, may be seen as behaving abnormally in this society's context and may be erroneously labelled as emotionally or behaviorally disordered. On the other hand, linguistic minority students exhibiting extreme signs of emotional disorders may not be identified because their behavior may be explained away in terms of cultural differences.

A third category, that of learning disabled is defined in P.L. 94.142 as:

> "Specific L-D means a disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or in using a language, spoken or written, which may manifest itself in an imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell or do math calculations. The term learning disabled does not refer to students who have learning problems which are primarily the result of visual, hearing, or motor handicaps or mentally retarded or culturally, educationally or economically disadvantaged."

In contrast to the federal definition of learning disabilities, Mercer (1976) discovered that in 42 state departments of education, the definition of learning disabilities resulting primarily from environmental "disadvantaged" were excluded in only 55% of the regulations. Current definitions, in many state regulations, don't clearly indicate that culturally different children who lack English skills should be excluded from being labelled L-D. (Gonzales, 1977)

Linguistic minority students who have not reached the level of English necessary to perform cognitive tasks are often misclassified as learning disabled. A misconception exists that if a student has achieved enough language to communicate but is not able to use that language in order to perform more difficult cognitive tasks, then that student must be learning disabled. (Cummins, 1971; Duncan & De Avila, 1979)

According to Cummins (1976) the "threshold level of competence" in each of the child's languages must be determined in order to determine which language should be used to instruct the child. All other factors considered equal, the child should be taught in his/her strongest language. Cummins warns against educators demanding that linguistic minority students use English in order to learn when the student has not had the amount of time necessary to develop the level of English language needed to cognitively handle the content. According to Cummins, it takes approximately five years for a student to develop a language to a point where he/she can completely function in that language. Therefore, when a student is asked to perform in a language that he has not yet fully developed, he will perform poorly and can be erroneously classified as L-D. (Cummins, 1980)

A fifth category is communication disorders. When assessing linguistic minority students, the students must be assessed in two languages and findings must be interpreted across language.

Developmental errors made by second language learners, in syntax, articulation, and vocabulary are often wrongly labelled as a communication disorder. (Ambert, Dew, 1980) The child whose language use should be categorized as different because he/she is developing within the norm and also is acquiring another language or a variety of the same language is often misdiagnosed as having a disorder.

Other disorders such as hearing, vision, and other physical disorders are often undetected in linguistic minority students. For example, according to specialists of the hearing impaired (Fishgrund, 1980), there is a high incidence of hearing loss among Portuguese minority students that has gone undetected. If linguistic minority students who have physical disorders can be identified, then many of these students can, with minimal remediation, remain in a regular classroom.

A final category which is considered in some states to be included in the definition of exceptional education is the Gifted. However, P.L. 94.142 does not consider the Gifted Child as exceptional.

The most recent definition used is found in Federal Law Section 904 of the Gifted and Talented Children's Act of 1978 which states:

> "Gifted and talented children means children who are identified at the preschool, elementary or secondary levels as possessing demonstrated or potential abilities that give evidence of high performance capabilities in areas such as intellectual creative, special academic, or leadership ability, or in peforming and visual arts, and who by reason thereof, require services or activities not ordinarily provided by schools."

There are many lists of subjective descriptors thought to define gifted children. The problem is that most linguistic minority students do not gain access to gifted programs because of biased identification procedures, evaluators, and programs unstaffed with bilingual personnel. (Ambert, Dew, 1982)

WHAT LEGAL MANDATES HELP SAFEGUARD LINGUISTIC MINORITIES IN THE ASSESSMENT PROCESS

It was not until the civil rights movement of the sixties, that the needs of ethnolinguistic groups began to be recognized. Since then, there have been however, legislative, executive and judicial actions on behalf of ethnic minorities. On the legislative level, Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, prevents discrimination on the basis of race, color, or national origin in any federally funded program. Therefore, any school system could be found guilty by the Office of Civil Rights of discriminating against culturally and linguistically different students if that system denies equal access to this population of students. "Furthermore, the Bilingual Education Acts (1968, 1974 and 1979) Title IX of the Civil Rights Act (1972), Section 504 of the 1973 Rehabilitation Act, the Equal Education Opportunity Act (1974) and P.L. 94.142 (Education of the Handicapped Act) provide additional legislative protections for linguistically and culturally different students."

On the executive level, the Office of Civil Rights issued both the Federal Lau Remedies (1975) and the well known May 25th O.C.R. Memorandum (1975). The Federal Lau Remedies was the result of the Lau v. Nichols (1974) Supreme Court decision which clearly established the fact that a school can not claim to provide equal access to limited English proficient students by providing them with the same services. The decision rendered in the Lau v. Nichols case was on behalf of the Chinese students' rights to have support services in their language and in English as a second language. The United States Supreme Court stated that "there is no equality of treatment merely by providing students with the same facilities, textbooks, teachers, and curriculum, for students who do not understand English are effectively foreclosed from any meaningful education." The Lau Remedies demand a transitional bilingual program for all limited English proficient students, including those with "disabilities". Specifically the remedies require that a district implement a systematic procedure for identifying numbers of LEP students in a system, assess the relative language dominance of students in native language and English, and to provide an appropriate instructional program which would ensure educational opportunity.

The May 25th Memorandum addressed the issue of inappropriate placement of minority students in special education classes. The memorandum specifically stated that "School districts must not assign national origin, minority group students to classes for the mentally retarded on the basis of criteria which essentially measure or evaluate English language skills".

As a result of the 1970 memorandum, a Task Force was formed by the Director of the Office of Civil Rights. This Task Force consisted of Puerto Rican, Mexican American educators, social scientists and Community leaders who developed monitoring strategies and recommendations addressing the assessment and placement of minority students in classes for the handicapped. (Bergin, 1980)

At the Judicial level, the fact that a student's linguistic or cultural difference cannot be used to label a child as "exceptional" or "disabled" has been clearly established in several cases in state courts.

These include: Diana v. The State Board of Education (California, 1973); Larry P. v. Wilson Rites, Superintendent of Public Instruction for the State of California (California, 1979); and Martin Luther King, Jr. Elementary School Children, et al v. Ann Arbor School District Board, F. Supp. 1371 ED (Michigan, 1979).

In Jose P. et al v. Gordon M. Ambach et al (New York, 1979) a New York court mandated that the New York City Board of Education evaluate students in their native language or by whatever means a student is able to communicate.

In Lora v. Board of Education of the City of New York, 465 F. Supp. 1211 (1977), the court asserted that the overrepresentation of minority students in special education classes violated the rights of minority students.

The Guadalupe v. Tempe Elementary School District (1971), also raised the issue of the improper use of standardized intelligence tests to place students in classes for the mentally retarded. According to Bergin (1980) an out of court settlement of the Guadalupe case provided many of the same provisions agreed to in the Diana Case (which involved the misclassification of Mexican Americans in classes for the mentally retarded). In the Guadalupe Case, the recognition of disproportionate numbers of Mexican Americans and Yaqui Indians in classes for the mentally retarded led to provisions to limit that number systematically, within a limited period of time.

The above court decisions have been based on the guaranteed provisions under P.L. 94.142 (The Education for all Handicapped Children Act) which quarantees educational rights for all exceptional children. A most important provision in this act entails that "handicapped" children receive a free appropriate education in the least restrictive environment. Specifically, both the provision that a student has the right to be assessed in his/her dominant language and that parents have a right to be communicated with in their home language help safeguard the rights of linguistic and cultural minorities.

Nevertheless, misclassification and misplacement of linguistic minority students still continues despite P.L. 94.142 safeguards, other legislative mandates, and numerous court cases. According to Bergin (1980) at the point of the Lau Remedies (1975), bilingual teachers began to complain about the rising numbers of exceptional students that were being placed in bilingual classrooms. The reasons given for this underrepresentation of linguistic minority exceptional students in special education classes were the inappropriate assessment instruments and the lack of bilingual special education teaching staff and materials. According to Landurand (1978), less than 5% of all limited English proficient students enrolled in bilingual programs were evaluated and identified as exceptional. A further research investigation by Nuttall and Landurand (1983) of 20 school districts in U.S. revealed that a substantially smaller percentage of limited English proficient than the 12% national incidence figure for special education are being identified for special education.

It appears that many linguistic minority students, who have little communicative abilities in English, are not being identified and referred for special education at a rate equal to their monolingual English speaking peers. On the other hand, linguistic minority students, who have attained some level of English communicative ability are mainstreamed into regular monolingual classes, are disproportionately referred for special education services and over enrolled in special education classes. (Landurand, 1980)

Bias in testing has inevitably led to inappropriate placements.

Mercer (1973), was the first to document this problem when she found in her Riverside study that the rate of placement for Mexican-American students in classes for the mentally retarded was four times larger than their representation in the total school enrollment. Tucker (1980) studying several school districts in the Southwest explained the difference in proportions in enrollment as merely a relabeling from mentally retarded to learning disabled.

WHAT IS NONDISCRIMINATORY ASSESSMENT?

In November of 1975, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act was signed into law, and it took effect October 1 of 1977. A provision of P.L. 94-142 is the assurance that testing and evaluation materials used are not racially or culturally discriminatory. Tests must be administered in the child's native language, and adapted to assess specific areas of educational need, rather than provide a single IQ score. The child must be evaluated in all areas with a suspected disability, e.g. intelligence, academic performance, hearing, vision, communication, emotional, and health.

"Non-Discriminatory" identification and placement is basically defined by Section 612 (5) (C) 94.142 which says that in order to qualify for assistance, a state must establish:

> Procedures to assure that testing and evaluation materials and procedures utilized for the purpose of evaluation and placement of handicapped children will be selected and administered so as not to be racially or culturally discriminatory. Such materials or procedures shall be provided and administered in the child's native language or mode of communication unless it clearly is not feasible to do so and no single procedure shall be the sole criterion for determining an appropriate educational program for a child.

In determining whether an assessment process is appropriate, the tester, the test, and the testee must all be considered as important components in this dynamic process.

A. THE TESTER

Who should test linguistically/culturally different students? All things being equal, a tester who speaks the language of the child, understands the culture of the child, and is a skilled assessor will be the best choice for the child. The examiner's knowledge of the culture of the child, either through birth or training, is also extremely important for understanding the examinee's behavior and perception of the testing situation (Plata, 1982). In addition, Oakland and Matuszek (1977) state that examiners who do not give evidence of a warm, responsive, receptive but firm style towards minority children will not be able to establish the rapport needed for successful testing and therefore, will not obtain the best performance from the child.

Because of the lack of native language assessors, many school systems use discriminatory testing practices.

Typically, the student is given an evaluation where English language is used as the medium for testing. Because of the linguistic minority students attainment of basic oral-aural English skills, it is assumed that this student can be evaluated in English. Prior to testing, language proficiency in English and native language is not determined. Standardized instruments selected by the monolingual English psychologists are selected and administered to the student. Scores are computed, even though many psychologists are aware of the irrelevancy of the norms and inappropriateness of many of the items to the child's cultural background and experience. The result is that little is learned about the child's level of functioning and misclassification is most likely to occur.

A second common evaluative approach involves a situation where a linguistic minority student, referred for an evaluation, is obviously of limited English proficiency. The school psychologists attempt to evaluate the student with the help of an interpreter. The interpreter is given no training in administering tests. The psychologist is unaware of the accuracy of the interpreted question. The standardized instruments used still contain inappropriate items and still have not been normed on this population. Furthermore, other potential problems in using interpreters are:

1) the interpreter may not be equally fluent in both languages and may translate incorrectly to the child or to the tester

2) the interpreter may identify with the child and subconsciously prompt the right responses non-verbally or through other cues

3) interpreters are usually not trained or familiar with the principles of test administration, human development, and human relations

4) interpreters who are of different social class, race, or ethnic group may be negatively disposed towards the child even though they speak the same language. Because of these and other pitfalls, school systems should either try to avoid using interpreters or develop special programs to train them. (Nuttall, Landurand, 1983)

A third current evaluation practice is to have a limited English proficient student evaluated by a bilingual psychologist, who is unfamiliar with the child's cultural background. Other school personnel, unable to speak the student's language, delegate to the bilingual psychologist the total responsibility of evaluating the student and recommending a placement. This practice is very poor because the psychologist may be very insensitive to the child's cultural background, and/or may also be a poor assessor.

A fourth approach involves a sensitive bilingual psychologist, who understands the limited English proficient student and his culture and understands how to use evaluation instruments cautiously. He/she relies on a multidisciplinary approach to assessment and gathers relevant information about the child from many sources. The result, in this case, will probably be a more accurate assessment of the child's abilities and weaknesses and a more appropriate placement for the child.

In sum, it can be said that the psychologist must use, in the assessment process, his/her knowledge of social, cultural, cognitive, affective, and psychomotor development, individual differences, second language acquisition, and learning and behavior disorders in order to identify the students' potentials and weaknesses; select appropriate techniques to meet the student's needs, assess the results of prescribed interventions in improving performance; and to refer students' requiring special services to the appropriate program.

In order to make accurate assessments, a number of areas should be examined, such as the child's interaction with adults and peers in the school setting; school adjustment; functional ability level; adaptive behavior; social development; performance in basic academic skills in the primary and secondary language; and perceptual-motor skills. The constitutional protections of equal educational opportunity and due process must be maintained, and ethnic/racial, sex, cultural, and language variables must be considered.

B. THE TESTEE

The child's level of English proficiency, the attitude of the child being tested, and the behavior of the child taking the test all influence the child's performance and the way that performance is interpreted by the tester. The behavior of children during a testing situation is very dependent on many factors. The way their culture defines learning, their past experiences with test taking, whether they were reared in a cooperative or competitive environment, (Pepitone) their cognitive style (Ramirez, Castenada), their cultural values (Camanza) are all major factors in determining a child's performance on standardized instruments. A child whose culture does not value "time" in the same way as Euro-American middle class culture will not respond to "timed tests" in the same way as many middle class Euro-American children. A child who exists in a cooperative learning environment will appear unmotivated in a test taking competitive environment. In addition, a child who is primarily field sensitive in his/her relationship to adults and to instructional material will have difficulty responding to a formal situation demanding him/her to perform formal tasks to a non personal adult. An assessor who understands the cognitive/perceptual/ and interactional behaviors of his student can adapt his technique and procedures in order to establish the rapport that is necessary for this ethnolinguistic student to perform at optimum level.

C. THE TEST

The literature on nondiscriminatory assessment has primarily focused on the biases of standardized instruments. Tests have been critized for "item bias" and improper standardization. Tests used in American schools are generally written by middle class individulas and reflect an Anglo conformity ideology typical of that class level and culture. (Mercer, 1979). Not only do the content items reflect Euro-American middle class experiences but values such as competitiveness and emphasis on time also reflect Euro-American middle class culture. Ethnolinguistic minority students who have not experienced these values and have not learned this content obviously are at a disadvantage in taking these standardized tests.

In addition to item bias, most tests used in the United States are normed on the majority population. Even when tests claim to have included minorities in their standardization population, minorities are included in such small ratios that the results are insignificant in influencing the standardization results.

Furthermore, the interpretation of test scores is of critical concern especially when a culturally or linguistically different student is concerned. The assessor needs to probe further as to the possible reasons for the student's low score. Was the test administered to a limited English proficient student in English? Does the student speak a nonstandard dialect and was the test given using a standard native dialect? Was the child unfamiliar with skills needed to take the test? Many questions need to be answered prior to making any interpretations about the student's performance.

WHAT ARE THE APPROACHES BEING USED IN ORDER TO ELIMINATE OR REDUCE BIAS IN TESTING?

A widely used approach in testing limited English proficient students is to translate and/or adapt standardized tests. This approach implies direct or written translations, weighing the non-verbal portion more heavily than the verbal and varying the speed and power components of the test (Mercer, 1979). The advantages are that this approach is easier than developing new tests. In addition, children's scores improve when given the test in native language (Nuttall, 1983). Nevertheless, this approach presents many prpblems. Standardized translated versions of tests do not take into account the many regional dialects that students have (Plata, 1982 DeAvila & Havassey, 1974). In addition, words do not have the same meaning when translated. Words in one language may not have the same frequency of use in a second language (DeAvila & Havassey, 1974. Therefore, a word that may be considered very basic in a child's second language may be a very difficult or non-existent word from the perspective of the child's first language. In addition, the content still reflects American middle class culture (Mercer, 1979, Plata, 1982). Translating a test does not deal with the question of whether a child has "experienced" the items; if the child's experiential realm does not include exposure to specific situations and experiences, responses to items dealing with this issue are invalid and the results suspect.

A second approach used is to establish ethnic norms. The intention in developing ethnic norms is to compensate ethnic minority students for their "deprivation". Ethnic norms are problematic in that they have the potential for encouraging lower expectations for minorities.

A second problem in this approach is that it does not provide educators with any accurate diagnostic information needed for educational programming. Instead, it may lead to false comparisons between different ethnolinguistic groups. A further problem with establishing ethnic norms is the reinforcement of a false assumption that groups are ethnically homogeneous. Use of ethnic norms will encourage the tendency to assume that lower scores are ultimately indicative of lower potential, thereby contributing to the self-fulfilling prophecy of lower expectations for minorities as well as reinforcing the genetic inferiority argument proposed by Jensen (1971) and others (Multilingual Assessment Program, 1976).

A third attempt to respond to criticism of standard I.Q. tests is to create "culture fair tests". Under the category of culture fair tests are: the common culture approach, the learning potential approach, and the neo-piagetian approach.

According Nuttall (1983) the common culture approach employs the use of problems or tasks that are equally familiar or unfamiliar to people in most cultures. These tests tend to be non-verbal, performance oriented, symbolic responses to relationships among figures or designs. The advantages of this approach is that it is economical, and can be applied to all groups. Some of these tests minimize dependence on verbal ability, (Cervantes, 1977) speed, item content, and test wiseness (Mick, 1982).

This approach has been widely criticized for many reasons. Mercer (1979) and Oakland and Matuszek (1977) contend that this approach is unable to yield similar means and standard deviations for different racial groups and social classes. Mercer (1979) further criticizes this approach for its non predictability of academic performance. Mick (1982) points out that several of these tests like the Raven's require formal skills learned only in a school situation. Oakland and Matuszek (1977) criticize the fact that his approach does not assess important psychological characteristics. According to Nuttall (1983) some common tests which fall within the common culture approach are Cattell's Culture Fair

Tests for measuring intelligence (Institute for Personality and Ability Testing, 1973), Raven's Progressive Matrices (1960), Goodenough Draw-A-Man Test (Harris, 1963), Leiter International Performance Scale (1966), Bender-Gestalt Visual Motor Test (1938).

A second approach in the category of developing culture fair tests is the Learning Potential Approach. In this approach children are pre and post tested on a non verbal reasoning test such as the Ravens. Between tests they are trained to process the test. The difference between the first score and the score after training is the child's learning potential. Proponents of this approach contend that it gives a measure of the child's ability to learn. Budoff (1976) claims that it predicts non-verbal learning performance in school. Opponents of this approach claim it is extremely time consuming (Rodriquez & Fernandez, 1981) and test data is limited to non-verbal area and does not predict future academic performance (Mercer, 1979).

An example of the learning potential approach is Raven's Progressive Matrices using a test-train-retest paradigm of M. Budoff (1972).

A third approach within the category of culture fair test is the Neo-Piagetian Approach. This approach consists of applying neo-Piagetian measures to determine cognitive development. According to DeAvila & Havassey (1974), scores on tests taken in English, Spanish, or bilingually showed no appreciable differences. Performance of Mexican and American samples both were within expected limits of cognitive development for given chronological ages. No ethnic differences were found.

Opponents of this approach cite the following disadvantages: the ability to predict academic performance is unknown, because many school systems do not organize their curriculum according to developmental stages, the practical uses of this test are limited, and Piagetian cognitive theory is difficult for teachers and parents to understand.

Examples of this approach (Nuttall, 1983) are the Piagetian measures developed by DeAvila and Struthers including Cartoon Conservation Scales. Measures are computerized to give information and recommendations to Parents, teachers and administrators through a system called PAPI (Program Assessment Pupil Interaction) (DeAvila, 1974, Struthers and DeAvila, 1967).

A fourth approach to diminish discrimination in assessment is the creation of culture specific tests. These are specific tests designed for each major American sub-cultural group (Laosa, 1977). The advantages of this approach is that it allows the child to be assessed at his/her level of functioning relative to expectations of his/her family and subculture (Mercer, 1979). This approach further highlights the fact that test performance is highly dependent upon the degree to which the test reflects the test taker's own culture. There are several criticisms of this approach. It is impossible to contruct tests for every subculture. In addition, student's performance on these tests does not predict the child's ability to function in relation to American core culture (Mercer, 1979). Examples of culture specific tests are: Black Intelligence Test of Cultural Homogeneity (BITCH-100) (Williams, 1975). This test includes one hundred multiple choice vocabulary items which deal exclusively with Black culture. However, since the vocabulary list was chosen from the dictionary of American slang, it is probably biased against middle class Blacks.

A second test, Enchilada Test (Ortiz & Ball, 1972) contains thirty-one multiple choice items which deal with Mexican-American barrio life.

68

A fifth approach is Mercer's Multi Pluralistic Approach. This approach uses parent interview and student testing in comprehensive assessment of the whole child (including medical, socio-cultural, intellectual and behavioral aspects). This approach develops multiple normative frameworks for socio-cultural, socio-economic, racial-ethnic and geographic groups. A student's estimated learning potential is computed by comparing his/her score with the average score for persons from similar backgrounds (Nuttall, 1982).

The SOMPA (System of Multi Pluralistic Assessment) has advantages and disadvantages. It provides comprehensive information to classify a child. Another claimed advantage is that it is easier to renorm existing tests and obtain infomation from parents than to develop new unbiased tests (Nuttall, 1979). However, SOMPA has been heavily criticized. Some major criticisms voiced are: the validity of the SOMPA is just beginning to be established (Nuttall, 1979; Oakland, 1979), lack of national norms is major drawback (Nuttall, 1979; Reschley, 1979), the length of the battery makes it impractical for routine use (Plata, 1982), the estimated learning potential does not predict achievement (Oakland, 1977). Because the estimated learning potential is designed to predict how well a student could perform in an optimum socio-culturally pluralistic learning environment, and because very few of those environments actually exist, the estimated learning potential becomes educationally useless for purposes of educational planning and programming. An additional two criticisms of the SOMPA are that some minorities find the "regression formula" concept demeaning. The process of adding points to a student's score because of the students socio-cultural background is viewed by some minorities as more harmful than helpful. In addition, SOMPA does not provide useful diagnostic information to program for the child.

The fifth approach is a Task Analysis Approach. In this approach the tester analyzes the skills and behavior required to answer each test item and determines reasons why the child does not respond correctly. The child is then trained in the areas of weakness and retested (Kaufman, 1977). Because emphasis is on the mastery of content, the advantage of this approach is that children are treated as individuals and not compared to others. (Mercer and Usseldyke, 1977) In addition, treatment is an integral part of the task analysis model. The model is essentially a test-teach-test approach (Mercer & Ysseldyke, 1977). Criticism of this approach is that some of the methods of analyzing the tasks can become difficult as tasks become complex. (Kaufman, 1977). Another criticism is that this approach has been used mostly in academic achievement areas. Examples of this approach are Key Math Test, Woodcock Reading Mastery Test. According to Nuttall (1983), exponents are Kauffman (1977), Resnick, Wang and Kaplan (1973), Gold (1972) and Bijou (1970).

A sixth approach is Criterion Referenced Tests. Unlike norm-referenced tests, criterion referenced measures are used to compare an individual with established criteria or performance standards, and not with other individuals. (Popham & Jozek, 1969). A strength in this method is that it evaluates a child on clearly specified educational tasks (Mowder 1980) and is directly interpretable in terms of specific standards (Oakland & Matuszek, 1977). There are several cited disadvantages to this approach. Reliability and validity are difficult to ascertain and cultural biases are hard to eliminate (Oakland & Matuszek, 1977).

A second criticism is that selecting appropriate behavioral objectives and criteria, can prove to be difficult and time consuming. (Laosa, 1976; Boehm, 1973)

A third criticism is that the tendency to use these tests to establish standards of excellence or desirable educational goals should be avoided (Oakland & Matuszek, 1977). An example of this approach is SOBER - Espanol (Cornejo, 1974) which provides comprehensive evaluation for Spanish reading (Nuttall, 1982).

A seventh and final approach is the Global Approach To Test Bias. In this approach, nonbiased assessment is viewed as a process rather than a set of instruments. Multi factored assessment values language dominance, adaptive behavior and sociocultural background (Reschly, 1979). Every step in the assessment process is evaluated as a possible source of bias (Tucker, 1980). The advantage of this approach is that it is the most comprehensive and realistic approach so far developed to aid the practitioner in identifying the sources of bias operating in their assessment system (Ambert, Greenberg, Pereira, 1980). The disadvantages in this approach are that it underestimates the role of content bias of tests, it is too time consuming and does not guarantee eliminating bias. Examples of this approach are: Guide for Non-biased Assessment (NRRC, 1976); Tucker's (1980) Nineteen Steps for Assuring Non-biased Placement of Students in Special Education.

Based on the author's experience with local school assessment procedures in relation to limited English proficient students, the Global approach to Assessment is highly preferred as a necessary first step in assessing any student. Other approaches such as criterion referenced, task analysis, and test-train-retest models need to be pursued particularly with this population.

WHAT ARE THE MOST COMMON ASSESSMENT PRACTICES?

Several surveys (Coulopolous & De George, 1982; Morris, 1977; Bogatz, 1978; Mick, D., 1982) have described the testing practices used by school personnel to assess limited English proficient children.

In a 1977 survey of twelve large school systems, (Arizona, California, Colorado, Florida, Illinois, Nevada, and Texas), Morris found that the four tests most commonly used were the Bender-Gestalt Test, Draw-A-Person, Leiter International Performance Scale, and Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC-English version). The first three of these tests fit in the common culture approach to diminishing bias because there is less reliance on verbal skills.

According to Nuttall (1983), five years later when Coulopolous and De George surveyed twenty-one school psychologists in Massachusetts, they found the four most frequently used tests were the exact same ones obtained by Morris, even though other instruments and approaches were available. The study found that the English speaking psychologists administered the tests using interpreters, pantomine, or whatever amount of English the child had mastered.

In the largest study of all, Mick (1982) surveyed one hundred and fifty-seven administrators of special education in four states, (Texas, New Mexico, Florida, Massachusetts and two cities, Philadelphia and New York). She reported her results in terms of assessment "modifications" for bilingual (Hispanic) students rather then in terms of specific tests used. However, Mick reported that non-verbal subscales were frequently used. Use of criterion-referenced tests, pluralistic assessments, and culture-fair tests were used only occassionally. The most frequent modification cited was the use of language proficiency tests. Often modifications that were used only occassionally were matching the examiner to the examinee, observing the child in the classroom, and using interpreters. Seldom were they attempting to improve the child's test taking skills or to use local ethnic norms (Nuttall, 1983).

In the twenty-one school systems surveyed in Nuttall and Landurand report (1983) to the Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Affairs, the most frequently used testing approaches were the common culture approach and adaptations/translations of existing tests. None of the systems reported using the culture specific approach or the Global approach. Seven of the twenty-one systems reported using the multipluralistic approach in total or in selected parts mainly the adaptive battery (ABTC).

ARE THERE VIABLE ALTERNATIVE COMPREHENSIVE CROSS-CULTURAL APPROACHES?

It is the contention of this author after reviewing the research in the assessment of linguistically culturally different students that of the approaches presented, the Global Approach To Test Bias offers most promise because of its emphasis on the process of evaluation. In addition, for each child from a linguistic minority background, a multi disciplinary assessment team should be composed. This team should include at least one person who speaks the child's language and is familiar with the child's culture and one person experienced in bilingual education, preferably in the child's language.

Prior to conducting any assessments, a determination of the child's level of proficiency in both his/her native language and in English must be made. Care should be taken in selecting instruments that claim to test proficiency. Both oral and written proficiency must be determined. In cases where there are no instruments to test proficiency in a child's native language, then an informal assessment approach needs to be developed in order that this information be made available.

The child should be observed by the assessment team in a variety of settings, including the classroom. A description of how the child functions in each of these settings should be gotten.

A team member thoroughly knowledgeable about the child's culture and language should prepare a home survey after visiting the child in his/her home setting. This team member should ascertain what language(s) the family normally speaks, what language(s) is spoken in the neighborhood, what exposure the child has had to the English speaking core culture, and the child's educational background. Information about the child's previous history and experience is critical in cross-cultural assessment.

A medical examination is an important aspect in cross-cultural assessment. Often, linguistically and culturally different students are placed in restrictive special education settings when the problem(s) could easily have been corrected by eyeglasses, hearing aids, or other psysical devices. Many physical problems which can be easily rectified go undetected because the child does not receive a medical examination.

A fourth area of assessment which is often overlooked when working with linguistic minority students, is the educational assessment component. At minimum, reading and math diagnostic assessments must be conducted in both native language and English. It is not enough to know that a ten year old child is performing in English at a second grade level. What specific skills does the child display in both languages? Which specific areas does the child display skills in one linguage? Which specific areas does the child display a lack of skills in both languages?

Instruments such as Key Math Diagnostic and Woodcock Johnson may be helpful in determining the child's academic achievement status. For the many limited English proficient students, informal reading and math inventories in their native languages must be developed. This requires native language speakers preferably who understand the educational background of the child and skilled educational diagnosticians.

In determining what areas to assess in greater depth, the first step should be gathering as much available information as possible. The child should also be observed in his/her natural setting; assessment information obtained from his/her classroom behavior; interaction with classmates and peers; the quality of his/her work, and interest and difficulty levels. A parent interview is helpful in providing further background information. After the data gathering process is completed, the assessor can then hypothesize as to the possible preceding factors which may have contributed to the assessor to decide what assessment techniques and instruments may be appropriate.

All assessments should focus on determining how the child functions both socially and cognitively in both English and the native language. Therefore, all procedures and techniques should be administered by an appropriately qualified professional who is familiar with the child's culture and speaks the child's language. If, after every attempt has been made, there is no appropriately qualified professional to conduct these assessments, then an interpreter needs to be sought and trained to skillfully work with the monolingual assessor. Cross training and teaming needs to occur between interpreter and monolingual assessor.

In regards to the assessment process, assessment procedures and recommendations for placement in special programs should be chosen to miximize the child's opportunities to realize his/her potential for success. All test results and information should be interpreted in the context of the child's cultural and social background.

WHAT RECOMMENDATIONS CAN BE MADE TO LOCAL, STATE AND FEDERAL EDUCATORS TO ENSURE THAT CULTURALLY AND LINGUISTICALLY DIFFERENT STUDENTS BE APPROPRIATELY ASSESSED?

The problem of providing appropriate assessment for children from linguistic minorities is plagued by a general lack of information. Many local districts and states do not presently collect data on these children. There is a need to collect data on numbers of children in particular language groups in various monolingual regular, bilingual and special education programs. Available data should be collected on the number of children from linguistic minorities who have limited communication skills in English, according to language group. Specific information is needed on linguistic minorities who have educational handicapping conditions according to category of handicap, type of placement and language group. Of this group of linguistic minorities, a breakdown of limited English proficient students by handicap and placement is needed. It is very important that the Office of Education require that states request this information from local districts. Information of this nature should be coordinated, interpreted and disseminated.

The development of an effective system to collect, analyze and disseminate data about linguistic minority children is an important first step toward a better understanding of the problem (Task Force on Cross-Cultural Assessment, 1980).

Considering the high risk of inappropriate educational placements for linguistic minority children, it is critical that bilingual and special education programs work closely together. In many states, bilingual special education programs are nonexistent or not defined clearly. There is an overall lack of coordination at federal, state, and local level. Because of this lack of coordination, inappropriate assessment procedures and placements continue to occur. There needs to be assigned staff at local and state level to coordinate and monitor assessment, placement and programming of linguistic minority students. Once this coordination is in place, then areas such as developing standards for assessors in competency in the language and guidelines for use of interpreters in assessment of limited English proficient children can be addressed.

A third area of critical need is the lack of training personnel. A major need cited by bilingual and special education directors in twenty states is lack of bilingual certified assessors and specialists to serve linguistic minority exceptional students. There are in many states no guidelines for determining many levels of linguistic competency for those professionals assessing children from linguistic minority groups.

A third recommendation is that the Office of Education assume a leadership position in addressing training needs in bilingual special education. The Office of Special Education should require state agencies in their comprehensive system of personnel development to address the issue of staff development in bilingual special education. Funds should be appropriated in this area. The development of cadre of trained personnel must be addressed.

There is a need for research in this area in order to determine best methods of assessing these children. The effect of a child's cognitive style on his/her performance is one area among many that needs further research. The Office of Education should, through requests for proposals, encourage needed research in area of cross-cultural assessment.

As stated throughout this paper, current assessment practices result in inappropriate placements for children of ethnolinguistic backgrounds. At present, assessment of children from linguistic minorities is often conducted in English, if the child understands the language at all. If not, assessments are conducted through an interpreter, who has little if any knowledge of assessment. The reliance on inappropriate instruments continues. There needs to be the development of a comprehensive system of assessment for ethnolinguistic children. This system should encompass at the state level a development of policies and guidelines and a means of monitoring the implementation of these guidelines at the local level.

Cross-cultural assessment is an area plagued with problems. These problems stem from lack of administrative coordination, lack of trained personnel who speak languages of children, lack of descriptive data, lack of clearly articulated guidelines and procedures, and lack of research. If linguistic minority students are to receive appropriate assessments, placements, and programs, emphasis must be placed in addressing the above areas and not on finding the appropriate tests. There will never be a test or tests constructed to solve the problem(s) in cross-cultural assessment. The ethnolinguistic child needs to be understood and described in his/her cultural and linguistic context at home, in the community and at school. A well articulated, creative, comprehensive cross-cultural approach is needed in order to do this. Are we able to meet this need - this challenge?

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Ambert, A. & Dew, N. Special Education for Exceptional Bilingual Students: A Handbook for Educators. University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, Midwest National Origin Desegregation Assistance Center, 1982.

This handbook addresses seven major areas: the legal rights of exceptional bilingual students, categories of exceptionality with special considerations for the bilingual child, assessment of exceptional bilingual students, parental involvement, program options for exceptional bilingual students, and special education services for exceptional students.

A Position Statement on Nonbiased Assessment of Culturally Different Children. Region 9 Task Group on Nonbiased Assessment. Hightstown, N.J.: Northeast Area Learning Resource Center, 1976. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 132 821)

Intended for educational assessors, school administrators, and those involved in the education of teachers and assessors, this manual presents guidelines for nonbiased educational assessment of culturally different children. Three major issues are addressed: standardization of tests (norms, validity, reliability and criterion-referenced techniques); educational assessors (bias in testing, cooperation, rapport, theoretical models, test scores, wider knowledge and communication and recommendations), and funding and legislation (Public Law 94-142 and recommendations). Included is a 10-page guide for nonbiased and nondiscriminatory assessment of the culturally different child, which can be used as a resource by assessors before, during, and after the evaluation of referred children.

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In this paper the author critically examines culture fair tests. He argues that culture fair tests: measure different psychological functions than traditional tests, vary considerably in format, may possibly increase the differential between culturally disadvantaged and more advantaged students, have questionable item content because it isn't certain yet which type of items the culturally disadvantaged perform better on, and they have not yet been proven to have higher validity than traditional tests, The author concludes that the elimination of group differences on tests is futile and calls for studies of the behavioral significance of test differences.

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Investigates the effects of variations in language of test administration on IQ, learning and achievement in Anglo and bilingual Mexican American preschool children. Purpose is to examine the relationship between IQ and academic learning under varying instructional conditions.

Hypothesizes that variations in the language of test administration influence IQ performance. This was supported.

Bergan, John R., & Parra, Elena B. "Variations in IQ Testing and Instruction and the Letter Learning and Achievement of Anglo and Bilingual Mexican-American Children." Journal of Educational Psychology, January 1979, 76(6), 819-826.

Investigates the effects of variations in language of test administration on IQ, learning and achievement in Anglo and bilingual Mexican American preschool children. Purpose is to examine the relationship between IQ and academic learning under varying instructional conditions. Hypothesizes that variations in the language of test administration influence IQ performance. This was supported.

Bergin, Victoria. Special Education Needs in Bilingual Programs. Inter America Research Associates, Inc., National Learning House for Bilingual Education.

This document reviews bilingual special education from an historic review, parent and community support, teacher training and program implementation.

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Introduces problems in assessment and placement of minority children in special education programs. Distinguishes between testing and assessment. Outlines problems of misclassification of children and need for sensitivity to expressions of cultural behavior. Discusses need to build upon cultural strengths of minority children.

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Discusses the role of IQ in the class structure. Gives brief review of the IQ controversy, with special attention to the social consequences of intelligence differentials among races and social classes. Summarizes research related to the economic importance of IQ.

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The author reviews the literature to support the contention that a disproportionate number of minority group children are placed in special classes because of biased placement tests. Noted are recent court challenges and criticisms of special class placement as both educationally unsound and racially discriminatory.

Budoff, M., Corman, L., & Gimon, H. *An educational test of learning potential assessment with Spanish speaking youth.* (Vol. *4*, No. 71). Cambridge, Mass.: Research Institute for Educational Problems, 1974. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 108 436)

The authors compared the predictive ability of certain learning potential (LP) and IQ tests with 54 low-income Spanish-speaking students (grades 2 through 6) in a transitional bilingual urban school. The Raven LP procedure, the Semantic Test of intelligence, the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC) in Spanish, and the WISC Vocabulary Subtest in Spanish and English were administered to the children.

Cattell, R. B. "Are I.Q. tests intelligent?" *Psychology Today*, March 1968, pp. 56-62.

Proposes two kinds of intelligence, fluid and crystalized. Discusses research, definitions, measurement, and development of culture-fair tests based upon fluid-ability measurement. Discusses correlation between the two factors, prediction value, effect of age. Provides several tables and graphs, including examples of culture-fair test items.

Cervantes, R. A. *Problems and alternatives in testing Mexican American students.* Washington, D.C.: DHEW/National Institute of Education, 1974. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 093 951)

The problems of using standardized tests with Mexican-American students, particularly the problem of "ethnic validity," are reviewed. Inadequate norm group representation, cultural bias, and language bias are purported by the author to be the most common faults of standardized tests. The elimination of standardized testing as a principal means of individual or minority group oriented educational program assessment is suggested.

Chinn, P. "The Exceptional Minority Child: Issues and Some Answers." The Council for Exceptional Children, April 1979, pp. 532-536.

This article briefly addresses some of the issues in identifying the exceptional minority child, the issues of fostering a positive self concept, motivating the exceptional minority child and developing teacher sensitivity is discussed.

Cohen, Alan. "Some Learning Disabilities of Socially Disadvantaged Puerto Rican and Negro Children." *ERIC Document*, pp. 37-41.

The findings of several tests are used to describe some learning disabilities and patterns common in lower-class Puerto Rican and Negro children. In particular, perceptual dysfunction is pointed to as a major causal factor in the reading problems of the disadvantaged.

Cohen, R. A. "Conceptual styles, culture conflict, and nonverbal tests of intelligence." *American Anthropologist*, October 1969, *71*(5), 828-856.

Two incompatible conceptual styles are identified, relational and analytic. Theoretical research discussion on (1) incompatibility in conceptual styles as a notable indicator of "culture conflict," (2) characteristics that distinguish such conflict from "deprivation" and "culture difference" and (3) styles of conceptual organization as culture bound characteristics. Includes sixteen references and "taxonomy of test response characteristics and socio-behavioral correlates of conceptual styles."

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Two incompatible conceptual styles are identified, relational and analytic. Theoretical research discussion on (1) incompatibility in conceptual styles as a notable indicator of culture conflict, (2) characteristics that distinguish such conflict from "deprivation" and "culture difference," and (3) styles of conceptual organization as culture bound characteristics.

Cole, M. "Culture, cognition and I.Q. testing." *National Elementary Principal*, March-April 1975, *54*(4), 49-52.

Discusses role of past experience as primary factor influencing performance on achievement and ability tests. Classroom viewed as representative of specific culture and relationship to cultural differences of children. Author notes that responses often depend upon familiarity with words, content of problem, and home culture. Discusses tests as measure of past experience, not general ability; discusses implications for education.

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SOMPA (System of Multicultural Pluralistic Assessment), developed by Jane Mercer, and normed on 2085 California school children, is the outgrowth of ten years of research designed to more accurately establish a child's learning potential. SOMPA includes measures of physical functioning (the Medical Model) adjustment and IQ (the Social System Model) and acculturation (the Pluralistic Model). SOMPA's unique quality is the consideration of IQ as a measure of social system learning, not potential. Learning potential is established by comparing a child's performance with that of children with similar levels of acculturation, and adjusting the IQ accordingly.

Condon, E., Peters, J. Y. & Suiro-Russ, C. *Special Education and the Hispanic Child: Cultural Perspectives.* Teachers Corps Mid-Atlantic Network, Temple University, Philadelphia, Tenn., 1979.

This document presents the problems of identification, assessment, evaluation and placement as they apply to exceptional Spanish speaking students. The authors discuss the linguistic and cultural variables which interact with and affect the educational process with respect to Spanish-speaking children. The reader is made aware of the linguistic and cultural interference in the educational process and guidelines for meeting the specialized needs of exceptional Spanish-speaking students are suggested.

Corman, L., & Budoff, M. "Factor structures of Spanish-speaking and non-Spanish-speaking children on Raven's Progressive Matrices. *Educational & Psychological Measurement*, 1974, *34*(4), 977-981.

The authors performed a factor analysis of the Raven Progressive Matrices for 228 Spanish-speaking and 243 English-speaking students to determine if the test measured the same factors in both groups. Four factors were identified: continuity and reconstruction of simple and complex structures, discrete pattern completions, reasoning by analogy, and simple continuous pattern completion. The last factor was distinct only for the English-speaking group, as it merged with discrete pattern completions with the Spanish-speaking students. The authors conclude the Raven measured the same characteristics with both groups.

Coulopoulos, D., & De George, G. Current Methods and Practices of School Psychologists in the Assessment of Linguistic Minority Children. Massachusetts Department of Education, Division of Special Education, 1982.

This study presents the current state of the art in Massachusetts as it pertains to the ethnic minority child. The authors provide a description of current practices and test use based on the findings of a survey they conducted of the school psychologists in Massachusetts communities having a bilingual program.

Coulter, W. A., & Morrow, N. W. Adaptive Behavior: Concepts and Measurements. New York: Grume & Stratton, 1978.

The authors present the importance of adaptive behavior in determining the presence or absence of a handicap bias such as placement bias, item bias, and test bias are discussed. Definitions of adaptive behavior, and survey results of what practitioners think about adaptive behavior are presented.

Creating Awareness of Test Bias: A Training Package. King of Prussia, Pa.: National Learning Resource Center of Pennsylvania, 1978.

This is a program designed for inservicing educators involved in the assessment of exceptional children. The packet contains eight simulated assessment activities intended to alert users to the problems of culture-fair testing and to potential sources of test bias. The 45-page document includes guidelines for group discussion of each of the simulations. A narrative portion contains an overview of test bias, key issues in testing minority children, and methods for coping with the problem.

Cress, J. W. "Cognitive and personality testing use and abuse." Journal of American Indian Education, 1974, 13(3), 16-19.

The writer argues that cognitive testing among American Indian students has valid though limited usefulness. Although scores on cognitive tests may not be interpreted as valid estimates of capacity or intellectual potential, they may be seen as accurate predictors of academic success within the dominant culture. Personality tests, on the other hand, stand in need of demonstrated validity among American Indian populations.

Cummins, Jim. "Tests, Achievement, and Bilingual Students." Focus National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, No. 9, February 1982.

The author contends that the implicit identification of adequate surface structure control with "English proficiency" leads teachers to eliminate lack of English proficiency as an explanatory variable, consequently, low academic performance on test scores among minority language students are attributed to deficiencies in the student or his or her background experiences.

Darlington, R. B. Is Culture-Fairness Objective or Subjective? Paper presented at symposium of annual meeting of American Education Research Association New Orleans, La., February-March 1973. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 080 601)

The search for an objective, culture-free test is doomed to failure except in the special case where different cultural groups have the same mean scores on the criterion variable to be predicted by the test. In the general case, it can be shown that no test (except one with the rate quality of perfect validity) can meet all the criteria reasonably expected of a "culture-fair" test.

De Avila, E. A., & Havassy, B. I.Q. Tests and Minority Children. Austin, Tex.: Dissemination Center for Bilingual Bicultural Education, 1974. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 109 261)

Test publishers and the users of standardized IQ and summary-score achievement tests have failed to consider the problems associated with testing the minority child. Since the results of these tests are used to determine the educational, economic, and social future of children, a harder look at the minority child's cultural background is essential.

De Avila, E. A., & Havassy, B. "The Testing of Minority Children - a neo-Piagetian Approach." Today's Education, November-December 1974, 63, 72-75.

Examines limitations of standard IQ tests for minority children. Proposes alternative assessment model. Discusses research on neo-Piagetian measures of cognitive development with Mexican American and other children in four South-western states. Outlines use of computerized system for informational and instructional needs, including individualized programs for each child tested.

De Avila, Edward. "Mainstreaming Ethnically and Linguistically Different Children: An exercise in Paradox or a New Approach?" Mainstreaming and the Minority Child. LTI on Special Education, Reston, Va.: The Council for Exceptional Children, 1976, pp. 93-109.

The author begins by critically evaluating the current approaches to mainstream testing and contends that because of these limitations, he attempted to develop an assessment system built on the theories of Piaget. The PAPT information system is described as an attempt to provide a new direction which meets the needs of educators as well as the needs of ethnically and linguistically different children.

De Avila, E., & Havassy, B. "Piagetian alternative to I.Q.: Mexican-American study." In N. Hobbs (ed.) *Issues in the Classification of Exceptional Children.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1975, pp. 245-265.

The authors discuss the Piagetian theory of intellectual development in contrast to the theories of Jensen and Ramirez. Following this discussion is a comprehensive description of the field study of Piagetian measures. The authors conclude that the lack of congruence between the neo-Piagetian and standardized measures points to problems associated with schools and curriculum and children should not be penalized for these problems.

De George, G. P. "Steps in the Development of a Criterion-Referenced Test. *The Bilingual Journal*, February 1977, *1*(2), 7-10.

Outlines basic steps involved in writing of criterion-referenced tests and indicate their preferred use. Practical approach; provides teachers with information whereby instructional decisions can be made regarding individual students.

Dissemination and Assessment Center for Bilingual Education. *I.Q. Tests and Minority Children.* Austin, Texas: Dissemination and Assessment Center for Bilingual Education, 1976.

This publication demonstrates point by point the inadequacies of I.Q. testing for Spanish-speaking children and children of other minorities. Designed for use by educators, this edition provides useful information about tests of intelligence based on translations; ethnic norms; and other elements that are not equally familiar to minority group children. The authors present the problems involved in I.Q. testing and provide suggestions for solving these problems.

Fishman, J., Deutsch, M., Hogan, L., North, R., & Whiteman, M. *Guidelines for testing minority group children.* Ann Arbor, Mich.: Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues, 1963. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 001 649)

Standardized tests currently in use present a number of difficulties with disadvantaged minority groups. They may not provide reliable differentiation in the range of minority group scores. The lower-class child will tend to be less verbal, less self-confident, less motivated toward academic achievement, less competitive intellectually, less exposed to stimulating materials in the home, less knowledgeable about the world, and more fearful of strangers than the middle-class child.

Fitzgibbon, T. J. *The Use of Standardized Instruments with Urban and Minority-group pupils.* New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1971. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 068 505)

The Harcourt Brace Jovanovitch Test Department has expressed concern about administering standardized tests to urban and minority group pupils. It has called for modification of test development procedures to insure that the instruments are valid and appropriate. Areas of concern include selecting appropriate norms and the testing of those pupils whose native language is not English. The author claims test developers have a responsibility to consider issues of test interpretation and use of test results. Information on the effective communication of standardized test information to the community is included.

Fowles, B. R., & Kimple, J. A. "Language Tests and the "disadvantaged" reader." *Reading World*, 1972, *11*(3), 183-195.

The authors examine the validity and cultural bias of three standard tests of linguistic skill. Included were the Wepman Test of Auditory Discrimination (ability to distinguish sounds of language). Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Profiles (diagnostic device for placing children in school), and Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Ability. A discussion of the literature and research on reading reveals that the tests do little to indicate how children function. It is concluded, instead, that the tests help perpetuate a cycle of branding minority-group children as failures, and then calling for inappropriate remediation.

Frederiksen, N. *How to tell if a test measures the same thing in different cultures.* Princeton, N.J.: Educational Testing Service, 1976. (ERIC No. ED 131 093)

A number of ways of determining whether a test measures the same thing in different cultures are examined. Methods range from simple techniques to those requiring statistical and psychological knowledge.

Gartner, Alan; Greer; Colin; & Riessman, Frank, (eds.). *The New Assaults on Equality: IQ and Social Stratification.* New York: Harper & Row, 1974.

Nine experts examine the past and present of the I.Q. controversy and draw some important conclusions about the role of I.Q. in society.

Gavillan-Torres, E. "Review of literature on assessment instruments used with limited English proficient Hispanic children suspected of having handicaps", undated.

The author reviews specific assessment instruments in view of their appropriateness for use with minority groups. Recommendations for improving assessment practices with limited English proficient Hispanic children are presented.

Gerry, M. H. "Cultural myopia: The need for a corrective lens." *Journal of School Psychology*, 1973, *11*(4), 307-315.

The author discusses the recommendations of a Department of Health, Education, and Welfare task force for implementing the antidiscrimination provision of a 1970 Office for Civil Rights memorandum. The memorandum prohibited discrimination against minority children resulting from failure to recognize their differing linguistic and cultural identity characteristics. Assigning children to classes for the mentally retarded on the basis of measures and evaluations of English language skills was prohibited. The task force recommended that school districts be notified of possible discriminatory practices and suggested procedures to correct these practices.

Gonzales, G. "Language, culture, and exceptional children." Exceptional Children, May 1974, pp. 565-570.

This paper presents the role of linguistics in the educational assessment of culturally different children. The linguistic and cultural bias of IQ tests as well as the role of adaptive behavior and community acceptance in minority groups are discussed. Note is made of the difficulty of identifying gifted children who are culturally different.

Goslin, David A. Teachers and Testing. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1967.

An exploratory study of the uses of standardized tests in schools, teacher's experience with tests and testing, their attitudes and roles.

Green, Donald Ross, & Draper, John F. "Exploratory studies of bias in Achievement Tests." ERIC DOCUMENT, September 1972.

This paper considers the question of bias in group administered academic achievement tests, bias which is inherent in the instruments themselves. A body of data on the test of performance of three disadvantaged minority groups -- norther urban black; southern rural black; and southwestern Mexican Americans as samples in contrast to white advantaged groups in the same regions, was analyzed using five different general methods for examining tests for bias.

Green, Donald Ross. Racial and Ethnic Bias in Test Construction. Monterey, California: McGraw-Hill, n.d.

Adapted from a federally funded study of the same title. The researcher found the need for changes in test construction procedures to produce unbiased instruments and suggests that research should be a standard part of producing a test.

Greenblatt, J. "I.Q. testing and minority youth." University of Washington, Seattle, 1979. Paper done for Educational Psychology 479.

Research on IQ testing among Chicano, Black and American Indian students is examined. Provides several explanations for low

national average IQ for minorities. Offers some suggestions and alternatives for culture free test. Interpretation of IQ tests in schools is investigated.

Greenlee, Mel. "Specifying the Needs of a Bilingual Developmentally Disabled Population: Issues and Case Studies." *ERIC DOCUMENT*, February 1980.

This paper concentrates on reviewing what has been reported about "normal" bilingual development of Spanish and English Children. Sketches of three children who might be called bilingual, but who show various developmental problems and a diverse set of abilities. These sketches illustrate the heterogenuity of linguistic skills and different program requirements of bilingual developmentally disabled children.

Harber, Jean R. "The Bilingual Child with Learning Problems." ERIC Clearinghouse, The Council for Exceptional Children. Reston, Virginia: 1976, pp. 2-5.

This paper reviews the research on the bilingual child with learning problems. The author notes that a disproportionately large number on non-English speaking children are placed in special education classes for the educable mentally retarded, and that this group is underrepresented in classes for the learning disabled. It is suggested that appropriate tools for evaluating these children be developed and programs planned.

Havighurst, R. J. "What are the cultural differences which may affect performance on intelligence tests?" In A. Davis (ed.), *Intelligence and cultural differences; a study of cultural learning and problem solving.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1951, pp. 16-21.

Examines role of social class as determiner of experience and performance on intelligence tests. Identifies three types of culture in U.S. Examines home, family, community and school contexts. Provides analysis of characteristics of upper middle and lower classes which appear relevant to test performance and resulting cultural differences.

Hilliard, A. G., III. Standardization and cultural bias as impediments to the scientific study and validation of "intelligence." *Journal of Research and Development in Education*, Winter 1979, 12(2), 47-58.

Examines standardized IQ tests validity and utility as scientific assessment device. Outlines issues involving race stereotyping, test norms, content, and cultural and linguistic bias. Identifies problems regarding predictive value, diagnostic misuse, and statistical analysis of tests. Proposes rethinking of both testing and the construct of "intelligence" itself.

Holmen, Milton G., & Docter, Richard. Educational and Psychological Testing. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1972.

An evaluative study of the testing industry, its products, and how they are used, with action recommendations for those who influence gatekeepers of our society.

Hunt, J. M. Psychological assessment in education and social class. From the Missouri Conference on the Legal and Educational Consequences of the Intelligence Testing Movement: Handicapped Children and Minority Group Children. 1972. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. Ed 077 943)

The origins of norm-referenced testing and the arguments against its use are summarized in this paper. The implications of the interactionists' view of heredity and environment are also examined. Alternative schemes for psychological assessment which, the author claims, could guide the teaching process and encourage ingenuity in teaching, are outlined. Topics such as the concept of intelligence and the effect of achievement and motivational autonomy, maturation and experience, and race and social class differences on IQ scores are discussed.

Identification of Bias in Testing: A Checklist and Guide. The National Learning Resource Center of Penn., 500 Valley Forge Plaza, King of Prussia, Penn. 19406.

This guide reviews the evaluation of tests for culture fairness from five perspectives: technical adequacy, item content, testing conditions, characteristics of the child, and examiner characteristics.

I.Q. Tests and Minority Children. Developed by Multilingual Assessment Program, Stockton, CA., Austin, Texas: DA CBE. (1974).

This publication demonstrates the inadequacies of IQ testing for Spanish-speaking children and other minority children. Information about tests of intelligence based on translations, ethnic norms, and other elements are critically discussed. The authors offer suggestions for solving these problems.

Jaramillo, M. "Cultural conflict curriculum and the exceptional child." Exceptional Children, May 1974, pp. 585-587.

The author asserts that there is a special need for teachers to realize that there will be cultural conflicts between themselves and some of their students, to try to understand different cultures, and to use these differences to enrich the education of all their students.

Jensen, A. R. Intelligence, learning ability, and socioeconomic status. Paper presented at a symposium by the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, 1968. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 023 725)

Discussed are the theoretical explanations of the observation that low IQ, low socioeconomic status children appear to be brighter in certain ways than low IQ middle-class youngsters. The two different theories of IQ as a function of socioeconomic status--environmental or cultural vs. genetically determined biological factors--are evaluated. Also presented is a discussion of the importance of cultural bias in tests and of the various correlations of IQ and learning tests.

Jensen, M., & Rosenfeld, L. B. "Influence of mode of presentation, ethnicity, and social class on teachers' evaluations of students." Journal of Educational Psychology, August 1974, 66(4), 540-547.

Investigates transmission and influence of ethnic and social class stereotyping on teachers' judgments of students. Teachers rated students on evaluative criteria after various types of videotape presentations of lower and middle class Anglo, Black, and Chicano children. Findings indicate ratings are affected by mode of presentation, ethnicity and social class.

Johnson, D. L., & Johnson, C. A. "Comparison of four intelligence tests used with culturally disadvantaged children." Psychological Reports, 1971, 28(1), 209-210.

Responses to three brief intelligence tests, the Slosson Intelligence Test, the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test, and the Goodenough Draw-A-Man Test, were compared with scores on the Stanford-Binet for 29 Head Start Children. Correlations with the S-B ranged from .79 to .64. The Slosson was judged the best brief substitute for the S-B in that it correlated .79 with S-B and its mean IQ was virtually the same as the S-B mean.

Jones, R., Gottlieb, J., Guskin, S., & Yoshida, R. "Evaluating Mainstreaming Programs, Models, Caveats, Considerations, and Guidelines." Exceptional Children, May 1978, pp. 588-601.

A variety of practical and theoretical issues pertinent to evaluation of mainstreaming programs are presented. The paper concludes with a presentation of guidelines for developing and appraising mainstream evaluation reports

Jones, R. Mainstreaming and the Minority Child. Leadership Training Institute/Special Education, The Council for Exceptional Children, Reston, Virginia: 1976.

This book provides conceptualizations, strategies, and techniques for teaching minority students in mainstream settings. Theoretical questions are balanced with practical concerns in areas ranging from fundamental issues involved in testing minority children to parental perspectives of mainstreaming.

Kagan, J. S. "Inadequate evidence and illogical conclusions." Harvard Educational Review, Spring 1969, 39(2), 274-277.

Invited response to Jensen's "How Much Can We Boost IQ and Scholastic Achievement?" (1969). Criticizes conclusion that if a trait is under genetic control, then differences between populations are due to genetic factors. Cites studies of identical twins which indicate environmental effect. Discusses possible effect of mother-child interaction on IQ scores.

Kennedy, Graeme. "The Language of Tests for Young Children." The Language Education of Minority Children: Selected Readings, B. Spoloky, (ed.). Newbury House Publishers, Roxbury, MA: 1972.

In this paper the author analyzes in some detail the way that tests are often unsuitable for young children and for non native speakers of English.

La Belle, T. A. "Deficit, difference and contextual explanations for the school achievement of students from minority ethnic backgrounds." UCLA Educator, December 1976, 19(1), 25-29.

Examines three major explanations for the generally low achievement on IQ and standardized tests by economically poor ethnic minority students. Reviews cultural deficit model and focuses on cultural difference and contextual models. Cites research with various ethnic minority groups. Draws implications for types of changes proposed in testing and educational practices.

Laosa, L. M. "Nonbiased assessment of children's abilities: historical anticedents and current issues." In T. Oakland (ed.), Psychological and educational assessment of minority children. New York: Brunner/Mazel, Inc., 1977, pp. 1-20.

Presents historical perspective on "nonbiased assessment of children's abilities." Focus is particularly on conceptual, sociological, technical, and ideological development that bears most directly on current issues in non-discriminatory assessment. No particular ethnic group identified.

Learn, M. E. "Children who are tested in an alien language - mentally retarded?" The New Republic, May 1970, 162, 17-18.

Presents evidence that Mexican American students are assigned to classes for the mentally retarded because they are given culturally unfair IQ tests in English instead of Spanish. Purpose is to show misuse of IQ testing. Chicanos and Blacks located in Texas, Colorado and California are subjects of brief study.

Locks, N. A., Pletcher, B. A., & Reynolds, D. F. Language Assessment Instruments for Limited English Speaking Students. A Need Analysis. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, National Institute of Education, Washingington, D.C.: 1978.

This report provides information on the adequacy of instruments available for assessing the performance of limited-English-speaking students and indicates areas of need. The report is divided into three sections: The first section is current priorities in the development and dissemination of assessment instruments for limited-English speaking students in grades K-6. The second section contains, by language group, assessment instruments that were available for review, unavailable or under development. The third section contains exhibits that indicate the various survey and review instruments used by ATR in the conduct of the study.

Longstreth, L. E. "A comment on "Race, IQ, and the middle class" by Trotman: rampant false conclusions." Journal of Educational Psychology, August 1978, 70(4), 469-472.

The validity of Trotman's (1977) study on "Race, IQ, and the Middle Class" is questioned. Purpose is to show that Trotman's findings are in contrast to a position that assigns some role to the genes in accounting for racial differences in intelligence.

MacArthur, R. S. Mental abilities in cross-cultural context. Paper presented to Department of Psychology Colloquium, McGill University, Montreal, 1966. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 024 742)

Issues involved in testing the mental abilities of non-western, nonurban ethnic groups are discussed in this paper. The paper reviews conceptions of intelligence and intellectual potential, prediction under fixed and adaptive conditions, the question of environmental influences, and some formal test factors. Examples are drawn from African, Canadian Indians, and Eskimo groups.

MacDonald, J. B. "Some moral problems in classroom evaluation/testing." The Urban Review, Spring 1975, 8(1), 18-27.

Identifies five major points regarding the nature and function of evaluation in the classroom. Defines moral evaluation and suggests teachers' role and responsibility in assessment of students. Provides guidelines for appropriate testing and discusses social consequences of evaluation, including aspects of tracking and school records.

Martinez, H. (ed.). Special Education and the Hispanic Child. ERIC/CUE Urban Diversity Series, No. 74. NY: ERIC, Clearinghouse on Urban Education, August 1981.

This publication is a series of written versions of presenters in the Second Annual Colloquium on Hispanic Issues. The following major topics covered are: Jose P. and the Right to Bilingual Special Education, factors to be considered when assessing bilingual Hispanic children, the state of the art in the assessment of Hispanic children suspected of handicaps, Puerto Rican mother's cultural attitudes toward the use of mental health services and training educators to meet the needs of Hispanic exceptional students.

Massachusetts Department of Education. Manual for Identification of Limited-English Proficiency Students with Special Needs. Massachusetts Department of Education, Division of Special Education, March 1980.

This manual is a resource to aid teachers in understanding and providing limited English proficient students with appropriate services. It includes sections on observation, modifications in the regular classroom, learning problems, reading, language patterns of the child, and general testing procedures.

McDiatmid, G. L. "The Hazards of Testing Indian Children." ERIC DOCUMENT. 1971.

Referring principally to Indians on reserves, this summary paper discusses the role that poverty, health and nutrition, social conflict, language, and test motivation play in relation to interpretation of test data obtained on Indian children. Approaches to measurement of the Indian child's mental ability that are reported to be promising and discussed.

Mendoza-Friedman, M. "Spanish bilingual students and intelligence testing." Thrust, Association of California School Administrators, November 1973, 3(2), 20-23.

Outlines IQ test problems for the bilingual and bicultural Chicano child. Deals with impact of testing; disproportionate number of Chicano children wrongly classified as mentally retarded. Discusses cycle of low expectation and low achievement. Provides historical review of bilingualism and testing controversy, citing specific studies. Author studies performance of low income Latino and Anglo students on Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Test. Practical recommendations include additional bilingual education projects, use of criterion-referenced tests, training programs for bilingual specialists.

Mercer, Jane R. "I.Q.: The Lethan Label." Psychology Today, Vol. 6, pp. 44-47; 95-97, September 1972.

Mercer contends that schools have the primary responsibility for identifying the mentally retarded via the I.Q. test which she concludes is inaccurate and unfair.

Mercer, Jane R. Labeling the Mentally Retarded. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1983

Federally sponsored study of clinical and social system perspectives on Mental Retardation in an American community.

Mercer, J. R. "A technique to compensate for culture bias in IQ tests." Phi Delta Kappan, May 1976, 57(9), p. 632.

Briefly summarizes Jane R. Mercer's testing technique SOMPA - System of Multicultural Pluralistic Assessment.

Mercer, J. R. "Sociocultural factors in the educational evaluation of Black and Chicano children." Presented at the 10th Annual Conference on Civil and Human Rights of Educators and Students, Washington, D.C.: February 1972.

Data from author's research in area of mental retardation classification with focus on Chicano and Black children. Addresses biases in assessment procedures, stigma of special classes and inadequate programming. Discusses function of IQ score on retardation classification, cultural bias of tests, definition of mental retardation, and practical alternatives. Three references.

Mercer, J. R. "Current retardation procedures and the psychological and social implications on the Mexican-American." A position paper for the Southwest Cooperative Educational Laboratory, Albuquerque, N.M.: April 1970.

Presents findings from research which identifies processes and procedures apparently responsible for directing disproportionately large numbers of Mexican American children to special education classes. Two hypotheses are explored relating to discriminatory referral and discriminatory clinical procedures. Focus is on nature of intelligence tests. Sixteen references.

Mercer, J. R. *SOMPA: System of Multicultural Pluralistic Assessment.* Technical Manual. New York: Psychological Corporation, 1979.

Data from author's research in area of mental retardation classification with focus on Chicano and Black children. Addresses biases in assessment procedures, stigma of special classes and inadequate programming. Discusses function of I.Q. score on retardation classification, cultural bias of test, definition of mental retardation, and practical alternatives.

Mercer, J. R., & Ysseldyke, J. "Designing diagnostic-intervention programs." In Oakland, T. (ed.) *Psychological and Educational Assessment of Minority Children.* New York: Brunner/Mazel, 1977, pp. 70-91.

The authors contend that to develop a nondiscriminatory diagnostic-intervention program, a multi model approach is needed. This multi model approach should incorporate a medical model, social system model, the psychoeducational process model, the task analysis model and the pluralistic model. The use of the five models in a coherent system allows the educator to know the child's current level of functioning and makes it possible to implement a diagnostic-intervention approach.

Messick, S., & Anderson, S. *Educational testing, individual development, and social responsibility*. Princeton, N.J.: Educational Testing Service, 1970. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 047 003)

Recent criticism contends that educational and psychological tests are unfair and inadequate measures of the capabilities of minority, poverty, and other educationally alienated groups. The authors suggest that there are two main issues, the first scientific, the second ethical. Is a test a valid measure of the characteristics it purports to assess for particular types of individuals in particular circumstances? The whole question of test use is examined, beginning with whether or not a test should be utilized for a specified purpose.

Moreno, S. "Problems related to present testing instruments." El Grito, Spring 1970, pp. 25-28.

Defines problems in assessment of Mexican American children using achievement, aptitude and intelligence tests developed and normed on English speaking population. Outlines concerns regarding validity, reliability, and availability of valid tests for Mexican American students. Cites research on monolingual Spanish speaking and bilingual children indicating inappropriateness of tests in English. Discusses research involving norms, predictive validity and readiness tests. Outlines needs of Spanish surnamed children and makes several recommendations.

Morris, J. "What Tests do Schools Use with Spanish-Speaking Students?" Integrated Education, March-April 1977, 15(2), 21-37.

The author reports his findings after conducting surveys in sixteen city school districts of the most widely used tests and procedures followed in assessing Spanish speaking students. He concludes with recommendations districts could follow in order to improve the assessment process.

Mowder, B. "A Strategy for the Assessment of Bilingual Handicapped Children." Psychology in the Schools, January 1980, Vol. 17(1).

This paper discusses the need for measurement experts and educators to understand that no one test method is sufficient for the assessment of bilingual children. The paper discusses past measurement directions and makes recommendations for the assessment of bilingual, culturally different children.

Murphy, L. B. "The Stranglehold of Norms on the Individual Child." Childhood Education, 1973, 49(7), 343-349.

Our culture's unjustified reliance on normative categories has the effect of freezing expectations about children and emphasizing their weaknesses and problems, rather than their strengths. Tests must be viewed in the context of the child's total coping behavior, both during the test and in daily life.

New Jersey State Department of Education. Self-Study Guide for Nonbiased Assessment. New Jersey State Department of Education, 1980.

This guide was developed in response to increased awareness and a need by child study team members in New Jersey. The guide is a self-study tool for individual practitioners. The goal is for readers to incorporate the concepts into their professional decision-making, and eliminate, to the greatest degree possible, bias from their assessments.

Nolte, M. C. School Testing, Grouping and the Law. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Organization on Legal Problems of Education, Colorado Springs, 1975. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 113 817)

There are grounds for concern about testing's relationship to the law because, where a constitutional issue is involved, the burden of proof of need for the test immediately shifts to educators. Throughout the history of testing in this country, the courts have often intervened to assure that students, while they are in school, are free from discrimination, either in word or act, by school officials. Upon a prima facie showing of discriminatory impact, those doing the testing must demonstrate the rationale for the testing procedures and the validity of the tests.

Oakland, T., & Matusek, P. "Using Tests in Nondiscriminatory Assessment." In Oakland, T. (ed.), Psychological and Educational Assessment of Minority Children. New York: Brunner/Mazel, 1977.

Identifies several issues regarding appropriate use of assessment techniques with minority children and diagnostic intervention services. Examines historical and current issues, legislative action, technology, and a conceptual model for service delivery. Contains eight appendixes dealing with many issues including annotated bibliography of language dominance measures. Extensive references provided throughout.

Oakland, T. "Predictive validity of readiness tests for middle and lower socioeconomic status Anglo, Black and Mexican American Children." Journal of Educational Psychology, August 1978, 70(4), 574-582.

Identifies the predictive validity of six tests of academic readiness for Anglo, Black and Mexican American first grade children from middle and lower socioeconomic status homes. Findings suggest that, as a group, the readiness measures tend to be more valid for Anglos than Blacks and tend to have greater predictive validity for middle class than for lower class children. Seventeen references.

Oakland, T. Psychological and Educational Assessment of Minority Children. New York: Brunner/Mazel, 1977.

Identifies several issues regarding appropriate use of assessment techniques with minority children and diagnostic intervention services. Examines historical and current issues, legislative action, technology, and a conceptual model for service delivery. Contains eight appendixes - dealing with many issues including annotated bibliography of language dominance measures.

Padilla, A. M., & Garza, B. M. "IQ Tests: a case of cultural myopia." National Elementary Principal, March/April 1975, 54(4), 53-58.

Identifies reasons IQ tests are partly responsible for under-education of Spanish surnamed children. Examines who should be tested, when, and for what reasons. Discusses potential influences of test administrator, effects of pressure and motivational factors. Focuses on negative characteristics of culture free tests, translations, no testing; advocates culturally sensitive testing.

Parker, Stephen (transcriber). Conference on Special Education Needs and Multicultural/Multilingual Children. University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, (March 8-9, 1979), Illinois Resource Center, 1979.

This publication includes a series of seven transcribed presentations in the area of bilingual special education. Some of the key areas addressed are: legislation, identification and referral procedures, assessment procedures, program development, staff development, and parental involvement.

Pedrini, B., & Pedrini, D. T. Intelligent Intelligence Testing. Omaha: University of Nebraska at Omaha, 1972. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 069 694)

Intelligence tests should be used to help people; they should not be used to penalize them. Furthermore, our focus should be on treatment; it should not be on labeling. IQ tests often stigmatize young children and poor persons of all ages. Large groups of black Americans, Spanish-Americans, and Indian-Americans are probably misclassified as to ability because of a different society and culture.

Phillips, Beeman (ed.). Assessing Minority Group Children. A Special Issue of Journal of School Psychology. N.Y.: Behavioral Publications, 1973, Vol. 11(4).

In this special issue eleven different articles are included dealing with the assessment of minority group children. Articles dealing with the assumptions underlying psychological testing and criterion-referenced and norm-referenced assessment of minority group children are presented.

Plata, M. Assessment, Placement, and Programming of Bilingual Exceptional Pupils: A Practical Approach. Virginia: Council for Exceptional Children, 1982.

This publication presents an historical perspective in bilingual special education. The author presents practical suggestions for assessing bilingual exceptional pupils, major issue in placement and programming of bilingual handicapped students.

Proceedings of a Multi-Cultural Colloquium on Non-Biased Pupil Assessment at Albany, New York. Sponsored by Bureau of School Psychological and Social Services, Bilingual Education Unit, June 1977.

This publication consists of proceedings of six comprehensive presentations on nonbiased psycho-educational assessment of non-English dominant pupils.

Ratteray, J. D. The Testing of Cultural Groups. *A Paradigmatic Analysis of the Literature on Testing and a Proposition.* Santa Monica, Calif: Rand Corporation, 1974. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 113 371)

This study grew out of the need to find and use standardized tests that would accurately depict the performance of various cultural groups in America.

Reschly, D. "Regional 9 Task Group on Non-biased Assessment." *Guide for nonbiased Assessment.* Northeast Regional Resource Center, November 1976.

This guide is designed as a resource for the assessment of the culturally different child or any referred child.

Reschly, D. J. "WISC-R factor structures among Anglos, Blacks, Chicanos, and Native-American Papagos. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 1978, *46*(3), 417-422.

Research compared factor structures of Verbal Comprehension, Perceptual Organization, and Freedom from Distractibility of the WISC-R for a sample of Anglo, Black, Chicano and Native American Papago children. Investigated appropriateness of test and examined comparability of factor structures and construct validity evidence for Full Scale IQ and verbal-performance.

Resnick, L. B., Wang, M. C., & Kaplan, J. "Task analysis in curriculum design: A hierarchically sequenced introductory mathmematics curriculum." *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis*, 1973, *6*, 679-710.

This paper presents the outcome of research exploring application of detailed task analysis procedures to the problem of designing sequences of learning objectives. A specific sequence of "objectives" is proposed and hypothesized to be those that best will facilitate learning. Relevant literature on early learning and cognitive development is considered in conjunction with the analysis and resulting sequences. It concludes with a discussion of the ways in which curriculum can be implemented and studied in schools.

Sabatino, David A., Kelling, Kent, Hayden, David, L. "Special Education and the Culturally Different Child: Implications for Assessment and Intervention." Exceptional Children, April 1973, pp. 563-567.

This article discusses the problems in testing culturally different students and makes a plea for increasing the number of qualified assessors.

Samuda, R. J. Psychological Testing of American Minorities: Issues and Consequences. New York: Harper & Row, 1975.

Outlines issues involved in standardized norm-referenced testing of minorities. Reviews intelligence testing, genetic and environmental theories, and technical problems of measurement. Discusses effects of environmental factors on performance and educational and social consequences of testing. Examines alternatives including cirterion-referenced tests. Includes Compendium of Tests for Minority Adolescents and Adults.

Samuda, R. "Problems and Issues in Assessment of Minority Group Children." In R. L. Jones (Ed.), Mainstreaming and the Minority Child. Reston, Virginia: Council for Exceptional Children, 1976, pp. 65-76.

The author discussed the causes for the abuse of tests, the consequences of testing for minority group children, and the trends in the use of norm-referenced tests with minority children.

Sattler, J. M. Assessment of Children's Intelligence. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co., 1974.

Test is designed to aid students' education in the wide range of psychological evaluations. Three main goals are presented: (1) to assist the student with the process of psychological evaluation (2) to guide in the selection of materials and (3) to summarize and integrate the findings of many studies that have been concerned with individual intelligence tests and with variables in the testing situation. Chapter Four is titled "Testing Minority Group Children."

Schmidt, F. L., & Hunter, J. E. "Racial and Ethnic Bias in Psychological Tests: Divergent Implications of Two Definitions of Test Bias." American Psychologist, 1974, 29(1), 1-8.

This article examines the two most widely accepted definitions of unfair test bias. In 1968, Cleary defined unfair test bias in terms of consistent under- or over-prediction of actual performance levels of minority or majority groups. Thorndike's 1971 definition holds that a test is unfairly biased whenever the difference between the minority and majority groups is greater on the test than in actual performance. These two definitions, which superficially appear to be similar, are shown to be very different in their implications for minority selection.

Sedlacek, W. E. *Recent Developments in Test Bias Research: University of Maryland Cultural Study Center Research Report No. 2-76.* College Park: University of Maryland, 1976. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 127 532)

Three types of test bias are discussed: content bias, atmosphere bias and use bias. While much concern has been expressed about the content of tests or the atmosphere in which they are given, it is more important to focus on how tests are used in making decisions about people. Four models of test use are defined: regression model, constant ratio model, conditional probability model and the equal probability model. The writer feels that, rather than asking if tests are biased, one should ask if the society is biased, since tests are always employed in a cultural context.

Shutt, Darold L. "Family Participation in the Psychological Evaluation of Minority Children." Paper presented at the Southwestern Orthopsychological Association Meeting, Galveston, Texas, November 1972. *ERIC DOCUMENT.*

Navajo family participation in the evaluation of their children is described in this paper. The author introduced the Hiskey-Nebraska Test of Learning Aptitude. This instrument, developed for use with deaf children, requires no verbal instructions or verbal responses. Use of this non-language individual test when combined with family participation resulted in significantly different scores. The current emphasis has been placed on the validation of the Hiskey-Nebraska Test of Learning Aptitude for use with bilingual minority group children.

State of Florida Department of Education. *A Resource Manual for the Development and Evaluation of Special Programs for Exceptional Students.* Volumn 111-B, Evaluating the Non-English Speaking Child, State of Florida Department of Education, April 1982.

This manual provides guidelines for school personnel in conducting evaluations of limited English proficient exceptional students.

Steinberg, B. M., & Dunn, L. A. *Culture and Conservation in Chiapas.* Paper presented at the Biennial Meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development, Denver, Col., April 1975. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 116 802)

This study examined the influences of culture, language and familiarity with materials on the ability to solve traditional conservation problems. A total of 80 Tzeltal-speaking children from two traditional Mayan villages participated in the study.

Stiggins, Richard J. "An Alternative to Blanket Standardized Testing." *Today's Education*, March-April 1975, *64*, pp. 38-40.

An explanation of and argument for depending on random and matrix sampling in education testing.

Stodolsky, S., & Lesser, G. "Learning patterns in the disadvantaged." *Harvard Educational Review*, Fall 1967, *37*(4), 546-593.

Original study tested Chinese, Jewish, Negro, and Puerto Rican six and seven year old children of middle and lower class on four mental abilities: Verbal Ability, Reasoning, Number Facility, and Space Conceptualization. Indicates these abilities are organized in ways determined culturally; social class produces difference in level, and ethnic group produces differences in both level and pattern of abilities. Included are specific findings, replication study, and implications for future educational practices. 74 references.

Test bias: A bibliography. Princeton, N.J.: ERIC Clearinghouse on Tests, Measurement, and Evaluation, 1971. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 051 312)

This is a bibliography of articles, research reports, monographs, books, and reference works related to test bias. References listed cover the period from 1945 on, and are grouped under two main headings: General Educational References and Employment References.

Thomas, Alexander. *Retardation in Intellectual Development of Lower Class Puerto Rican Children in New York City*. ERIC Clearinghouse, The Council for Exceptional Children, Reston, Virginia, May 1969.

To study the home environment of the Puerto Rican as it relates to the children's academic achievement, forty-five working class families were interviewed in light of variables such as achievement and classroom behavior. The results indicated that parents were interested in their child's education and the low reading score of these children could be attributed to poor schoolings.

Torrance, E. Paul. *Discovery and Nurturance of Giftedness in the Culturally Different*. Reston, VA: CEC (1977).

In this monograph, the author offers creative non psychometric approaches of discovering giftedness in culturally different students. Creative alternative approaches for nurturing giftedness are discussed.

Torrance, E. P. "Are the Torrance Tests of Creative Thinking Biased against or in Favor of "Disadvantaged" Groups?" *Gifted Child Quarterly*, 1971, *15*(2), 75-80.

In an effort to establish the validity of his Torrance Tests of Creative Thinking, the author reviews a number of studies which have used the instrument. The majority of the stddies reported show no statistically signigicant differences in the overall scores of different racial and socioeconomic groups. Instead, some groups tended to do better on one part of the test, while others excelled on alternate sections.

Torrance, E. P. "Non-test indicators of creative talent among disadvantaged children." Gifted Child Quarterly, 1973, 17(1), 3-9.

The introduction to this article contains a discussion and review of tests which do not exhibit racial or socioeconomic bias, and those that are biased in favor of blacks. After acknowledging that some persons may be opposed to any testing of minority students, the author presents a non-test alternative to identifying gifted or talented minority children. The alternative is a four-page checklist of observable behaviors which are considered creative positives. The checklist can be used in selecting, guiding, and encouraging creativity in gifted disadvantaged children.

Tucker, J. A. Nineteen Steps for Assuring Non-biased Placement of Students in Special Education. Reston, Virginia: ERIC Clearinghouse on Handicapped and Gifted Children, 1980.

The author establishes a clear viable nineteen step process for evaluating and placing students in special education. This article is an excellent useful tool particularly to school personnel who work with linguistically and culturally different students.

U.S. Commission on Civil Rights. "Quality Education for Mexican-American Children. Integrated Education, March-April 1977, pp. 38-41.

This paper addresses numerous detailed recommendations to state departments and OCR in the areas of curriculum, student assignment, teacher education, and counseling of Mexican American children.

Vasquez, J. A. "Cultural differences: Implications for learning, teaching, and testing. Occasional Papers, Center for Development of Community College Education, University of Washington, 1977a, No. 28, 67-68.

Discusses (1) cultural and socioeconomic differences among minority children which have strong implications for learning and therefore for teaching (2) how these distinctives suggest the need for reconstructing tests and the testing situation. Focus is to show why there is disparity in academic achievement between minorities and mainstream youth. Motivation of minority students briefly examined.

Weber, George. "Uses and Abuses of Standardized Testing in the Schools." *Occasional Papers.* No. 22. Washington, D.C.: Council for Basic Education, 1974.

Brief, clearly written critique of intelligence, aptitude and achievement tests; their uses, limitations and abuses; and discussion of current controversies surrounding standardized testing.

Williams, R. L. "The BITCH-100: a culture-specific test." *Journal of Afro-American Issues,* 1974, *3*(1), 103-116.

Provides review of several types of test construction. Outlines research done to design the culture specific BITCH-100 (Black Intelligence Test of Cultural Homogeneity) test for Black population. Discusses test administration to 100 Black and 100 White subjects of lower and middle SES. Examines validation process, the BITCH as a measure of intelligence and correlational data with California Achievement Test. Suggests test may be used in other ways in addition to use as measure of cognitive function.

Wolff, J. L. "Utility of socioeconomic status as a control in racial comparisons of IQ." *Journal of Educational Psychology,* August 1978, *70*(4), 473-477.

The validity of Trotman's conclusions as found in "Race, IQ, and the Middle Class." (1977) are questioned by (1) a critique of her methodology and (2) a critical examination of her results.

Yoshida, R., MacMillan, D., & Myers, E. "The decertification of Minority Group EMR Students in California: Achievement and Adjustment." *Mainstreaming and the Minority Child.* CEC, Reston, Virginia, 1976, pp. 215-235.

California's response to civil rights litigation which resulted in the reassignment of 11,000 to 14,000 educable mentally retarded students to regular classrooms with some mainstreaming assistance is reported. This paper also presents findings of an Office of Special Education project which assessed the success of decertification of EMR students in terms of student achievement and adjustment.

Zirkel, P. A. *Spanish-speaking students and standardized tests.* Albany: New York State Education Dept., 1972. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 080 594)

A review of the research reveals that standardized intelligence and achievement testing presents linguistic, cultural and psychological difficulties for Spanish-speaking children. These difficulties are evident in internal or intervening variables, such as the language used in the administration of the test, the extent of the verbal factor in it, and the ethnic background of its administrator. At the core of the problem has been the IQ testing of Spanish-speaking children.

Zirkel, P. A. "Spanish-speaking students and standardized tests." *Urban Review*, June 1972, *5-6*, 32-40.

Review of studies dealing with Spanish-speaking students and standardized tests. Examines research on intelligence tests, achievement tests, and psychological reactions to testing. Findings indicate testing difficulties are linguistic, cultural, and psychological in nature, and are influenced by variables such as language used in the administration of the test, extent of test's verbal factor, and ethnic background of administrator. Outlines need for new instrumentation.

GUIDE FOR NONBIASED ASSESSMENT

Prepared by:

Region 9 Task Group on Nonbiased Assessment
Northeast Regional Resource Center
November, 1976

This Guide may be used as a resource throughout the assessment process of any referred child but is considered critical for the assessment of the culturally different child.

This Guide may be duplicated.

REFERRAL

1. Are the parents/guardians aware that a referral has been made for their child, and by whom?

2. Is this child's presenting problem clearly and precisely stated on the referral?

    a. Does the referral include descriptive samples of behavior rather than opinions of the referring agent?

    b. Is there supportive documentation of the problem?

3. Is the referral legitimate?

    a. Does the referring agent have a history of over referral of children from certain cultural groups?

    b. Could irrelevant personal characteristics (e.g. sex or attractiveness) of the child have influenced the decision to refer him/her.

    c. Could the referring agent have misinterpreted this child's actions or expression due to his lack of understanding of cultural differences between himself and the child?

4. Can the assessment team provide the referring agent with interim recommendations that may eliminate the need for a comprehensive evaluation?

    a. Is it possible that the curriculum being used assumes that this child has developed readiness skills at home that in reality he/she hasn't had the opportunity to develop? If so, can the team assist the teacher in planning a program to give this child the opportunity to develop readiness skills?

    b. Can the team provide information on the child's cultural background for the referring agent so that there are fewer misunderstandings between the referring agent and this child and perhaps other children of similar cultural background?

5. Have I informed this child's parents/guardians in their primary language of the referral?

    a. Have I explained the reason(s) for the referral?

    b. Have I discussed with the parents what next step activities may be involved?

        e.g. - professional evaluations
        - use of collected data
        - design of an individualized educational plan, if necessary

    c. Have I discussed due process procedures with the parents?

    d. Do I have documented parental permission for the evaluation?

    e. Have I asked the parents to actively participate in all phases of the assessment process?

f. Have I informed the parents of their right to examine all relevant records in regard to the identification, evaluation and educational plan of their child?

MEETING THE CHILD

1. What special conditions about this child do I need to consider?

    a. What is the child's primary home language?

    b. Do I know about the child's home environmental factors?
    e.g. - familial relationships/placement
    - social and cultural customs

    c. Do I understand this child's culture and language so that I can evoke a level of performance which accurately indicates the child's underlying competencies?

    d. Is this child impeded by a handicap other than the referral problem that may result in his not understanding what I am talking about?

2. What special conditions about myself do I need to consider?

    a. How do I feel about this child?

    b. Are my values different from this child's?

    c. Will my attitude unfairly affect this child's performance?

    d. Can I evaluate this child fairly and without prejudice?

    e. If not, would I refer him/her to another assessor if one is available?

3. Have I examined closely all the available existing information and sought additional information concerning this child?

    a. Has the child's academic performance been consistent from year to year?

    b. Is there evidence in this child's record that his performance was negatively or positively affected by his classroom placement or teacher?

    c. Are his past test scores consistent with his past class performance?

    d. Am I familiar with past test instruments used to evaluate this child and how well can I rely on his prior test scores?

    e. Have I observed this child in as many environments as possible (individual, large group, small group, play, home)?

    f. Am I making illegitimate assumptions about this child? e.g. Do

I assume he speaks and reads Spanish simply because he is Puerto Rican?

g. Have I actively sought additional information on non-school related variables that may have affected this child's school performance?

   e.g. - health factors (adequate sleep, food)
        - family difficulties
        - peer group pressures

4. Does this child understand why he/she is in the assessment situation?

   a. Have I tried to explain at his/her level of understanding what the reasons were for his referral?

   b. Have I given this child the opportunity to freely express his/her perceptions of "the problem".

   c. Have I discussed with the child what next step activities may be involved?

SELECTION OF APPROACH FOR ASSESSMENT

1. Have I considered what the best assessment approach is for this child?

   a. Considering the reasons for referral, do I need to utilize behavioral observations, interviews, informal techniques or standardized techniques or a combination of the above?

   b. Have I given as much thought to assessing this child's adaptive behavior as I have to his/her academic school performance?

   c. Are the approaches I am considering consistent with the child's receptive and expressive abilities?

   d. Am I placing an overdependence on one technique and overlooking others that may be more appropriate?

   e. Have I achieved a balance between formal and informal techniques in my selection.

2. If I have selected to use standardized instruments, have I considered all of the ramifications?

   a. Am I testing this child simply because I've always used tests in my assessment procedure?

   b. Am I administering a particular test simply because it is part of THE BATTERY?

   c. Am I administering a test because I have been directed to do so by the Administration?

   d. Does the instrument I've chosen include persons in the standardization sample from this child's cultural group?

   e. Are subgroup scores reported in the manual?

   f. Were there large enough numbers of this child's cultural group in the test sample for me to have any reliance on the norms?

   g. Does the instrument I have selected assume a universal set of experience for all children?

   h. Does the instrument selected contain illustrations that are misleading and/or outdated?

   i. Does the instrument selected employ vocabulary that is colloquial, regional and/or archaic?

   j. Do I understand the theoretical basis of the instrument?

   k. Will this instrument easily assist in delineating a recommended course of action to benefit this child?

   l. Have I reviewed current literature regarding this instrument?

   m. Have I reviewed current research related to potential cultural influences on test results?

TEST ADMINISTRATION

1. Are there factors (attitude, physical conditions) which support the need to reschedule this child for evaluation at another time?

2. Could the physical environment of the test setting adversely affect this child's performance?

   - room temperature
   - noise
   - inadequate space
   - poor lighting
   - furnishings inappropriate for child's size

3. Am I familiar with the test manual and have I followed its directions?

4. Have I given this child clear directions?

   a. If his/her native language is not English, have I instructed him/her in his/her language?

   b. Am I sure that this child understands my directions?

5. Have I accurately recorded entire responses to test items, even though the child's answers may be incorrect, so that I might later consider them when interpreting his/her test scores?

6. Did I establish and maintain rapport with this child throughout the evaluation session?

SCORING AND INTERPRETATION

1. Have I examined each item missed by this child rather than merely looking at his/her total score?
    a. Is there a pattern to the types of items this child missed?
    b. Are the items missed free of cultural bias?
    c. If I omitted all items missed that are culturally biased, would this child have performed significantly better?
2. Am I aware that I must consider other factors in the interpretation of this child's scores?
    a. Have I considered the effect the child's attitude and/or physical condition may have had on his performance?
    b. Have I considered the effect that the child's lack of rapport with me may have had on his performance?
    c. Does my interpretation of this child's performance include observations?
    d. Do I realize that I should report and interpret scores within a range rather than as a number?
3. What confidence do I have in this child's test scores?
    a. Are test scores the most important aspect of this child's evaluation?
    b. Will I allow test scores to outweigh my professional judgement about this child?

CONSULTATION WITH TEAM MEMBERS AND OTHERS

1. Am I working as an integral member of a multidisciplinary team on behalf of this child?
    a. Have I met with the team to share my findings regarding this child?
    b. Are other team member's evaluation results in conflict with mine?
    c. Can I admit my discipline's limitations and seek assistance from other team members?
    d. Do I willingly share my competencies and knowledge with other team members for the benefit of this child?
    e. Has the team arrived at its conclusions as a result of team consensus or was our decision influenced by the personality and/or power of an individual team member?

2. Is the multidisciplinary team aware of its limitations?
    a. Are we aware of community resource personnel and agencies that might assist us in developing an educational plan for this child? Do we utilize such resources before, during, and after the evaluation?
    b. Do we on the team feel comfortable in including this child's parents in our discussions?

ASSESSMENT REPORT

1. Is my report clearly written and free of jargon so that it can be easily understood by this child, his parents, and teachers?
2. Does my report answer the questions asked in the referral?
3. Are the recommendations I have made realistic and practical for the child, school, teacher, and parents?
4. Have I provided alternative recommendations?
5. Have I included in my report a description of any problems that I encountered and the effects of such during the assessment process?

INDIVIDUAL EDUCATIONAL PLAN

Are we making this child fit into an established program or are we developing an individualized educational plan appropriate for this child?

1. Have we identified this child's strengths and weaknesses?
2. Have we specified long range goals and immediate objectives for this child?
3. Are we willing to assist the teacher in implementing this child's educational plan?
4. Have we stated when and how this child's progress will be evaluated and by whom?

FOLLOW UP

What are my responsibilities after we have written this child's educational plan?

1. Have I discussed my findings and recommendations with this child's parents and explained their due process rights? Have I given the parents a written copy of this child's educational plan?

2. Have I met with those working with this child to discuss the educational plan and to assist them in implementing its recommendations?

3. Have I discussed my findings and recommendations with this child at his level of understanding?

4. Can I help those working directly with the child to become more familiar with this child's social and cultural background?

5. Have I sought this child's parents' permission for release of any confidential materials to other agencies and professionals?

6. Will I periodically review this child's educational plan in regard to his/her actual progress so that any necessary changes can be made?

SOME FINAL THOUGHTS

1. Do I believe in the right to an appropriate education for all children?

2. Would I be comfortable if MY child had been involved in THIS assessment process?

3. Is there a willingness and desire on my part to actively participate in in-service activities that will lead to the further development of my personal and professional growth?

CHAPTER III

COGNITIVE LINGUISTIC DEVELOPMENT AND LANGUAGE - CULTURE TIES

Synthesis Document [1]

by

Robert N. St. Clair, Ph.D.

The role of the bilingually handicapped in Amercian culture can best be understood from a theortical framework known as the sociology of knowledge. According to this view, people exist in a social system which they consider to be real, but which they do not know has been socially constructed for them and by them. This is evidenced, for example, in face-to-face interactions where one person creates a "conversational image" of the other during their first encounter. This image is based on non-verbal behavior, speech patterns, interaction strategies, and other forms of daily routines. What one asks and says or does, in this model, is just as significant as what one fails to say or do. A common place example of constructing conversational images can be readily found among parents who constantly refer to their sons and daughters as "my baby." This is the image that a mother constructs during early infanthood, but which she has never let go of regardless of the fact that "her baby" may be middle aged or older. In the rhetoric of this model, she is the playwright who has written a social drama in which her son or daughter is forever a child; and she is the actor who performs the role of motherhood; and she is the audience and the critic who constantly monitors her own behavior in order to insure that the "play" is a success. Her baby pictures and bronzed baby shoes are all part of the scenery that she uses in her social drama; and, most importantly, language is the medium which accomplishes this. Language, then, becomes a social barometer in which another's behavior provides psycho-social insights in how one views the social world. The conversational image of a handicapped individual has been largely determined by traditions within the mainstream society. These are social dramas in which the populace have created themselves as the protagonists and those who do not fit within their system as devalued. The handicapped have been given predetermined roles to play. They are deemed as socially distant. They have been tacitly categorized as "outsiders" by the system and consequently become victims of mainstream oppression.

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[1] Special gratitude is given to Dr. Philip C. Chinn, Special Assistant to the Executive Director for Minority and Handicapped Concerns, the Council for Exceptional Children. His astute comments and evaluation of this essay has been very valuable. Many of the quotations are taken directly from his own written response of this synthesis.

The concept of labelling forms an intrinsic part within the sociology of knowledge; and it accounts for why bilingual minorities are treated as outsiders. It argues that the process is socio-political because many within the citizenry may break laws and go unpunished while other may abide by the regulations and will, nevertheless, become falsely accused.

	Law breakers	Non-law breakers
Perceived as Deviant	PURE DEVIANTS	FALSELY ACCUSED
Not perceived	SECRET DEVIANTS	CONFORMING

Those who CONFORM to the system and who are in the mainstream pose no threat. Those who are considered as true outsiders by everyone are labelled as PURE DEVIANTS. This category may shift in values from time to time. Prior to the turn of the century, for example, women who wanted to vote were considered pure deviants. Similary, the concept of divorce was tantamount to complete anomie and insanity, but now the reverse is almost true - nearly everyone is divorced. Hence the category of the true outsider is related to socio-historical values. The more interesting aspects of labelling theory can be found under the categories of the SECRET DEVIANT and the FALSELY ACCUSED. The former is part of the power system (a large corporate lobby, a strong professional organization, the economic power elite, etc.), whereas the latter are socially, ethnically, morally, or physically powerless. They are the non-conforming who provide a direct threat to one of the power groups or whose socio-economic dependency and control is related to those in power. Howard Becker mentions the process of labelling and he begins with the MORAL ENTREPRENEUR who has a vested interest in some aspect of social control and who attempts to incorporate these elitist views through legislation. Once there is the creation of laws and policies, the moral entrepreneurs depend on the SOCIAL ENFORCERS to carry out the new laws and procedures. The enforcers have no vested interest in the morality of a legislative act, but they do have jobs and it is within their professional interest to maintain a modicum of compliance with the law. The social enforcers are everywhere. They are the policemen, the military, and most civil servants within the machinery of government. But, most importantly, they are the school teachers who are directly involved in promulgating the epistemology of mainstreaming and who by their very act of testing have labelled those who do not conform as outsiders. In her study of labelling among the handicapped, Jane Mercer, has found that the social entrepreneurs were the psychiatrists and the psychologists who have created laws and policies which have stigmatized those who are mentally retarded, culturally different and physically disabled. Furthermore, it has been argued by some political sociologists that they had a professional interest in maintaining dependency and control upon those groups who benefitted them economically as consultants and socially as caretakers. Special education teachers and linguists within this rubric, have become the social enforcers of the moral entrepreneurs. They are the ones who make the laws and policies work. Without them the process of stigmatization and control would fail. The third group in the interactive process of labelling is the VICTIM. These are the people against whom the various laws have been created and against whom the social controls are imposed. They are the ones who have been falsely accused by society. There are many victims within American society, but some are doubly stigmatized because they belong to microcultures within subcultures. An individual may be labelled because of ethnic identity, religious preference, prescribed or ascribed gender, age, socio-economic level, the use of a different home language, geographical residence, or other forms of exceptionality (Rothman, 1978). But, consider the plight of the bilingual who is also physically or mentally handicapped and who happens to belong to the Catholic church, and is financially incapable of sustaining a livelihood. Mainstream society is rather harsh on these individuals. They are doubly jeoardized (Abramson, 1973). Society has little economic tolerance for them.

> Through the ages, human understanding and treatment of mental retardation have been influenced considerbly by the socioeconomic conditions of the times. Mental and physical defects were naturally viewed by primative nomadic tribes with fear and disgrace, in large part because of the stigma attached to such conditions by religious beliefs as well as superstitions and myths. Other influences on the way the handicapped were viewed resulted from the economic drain on the tribe by these individuals. Nomadic tribes in particular could ill afford to be burdened by nonproductive members who consumed their limited food and water supplies but did not tangibly contribute to the group's common welfare. Even as tribal civilization progressed and a less nomadic existence prevailed, the retarded were frequently viewed somewhat harshly. Farming and maintaining herds had become a way of life, but the threat of famine remained constantly on the horizon. The economic picture for the handicapped was, therefore, somewhat similar to what it had been during more nomadic times. Neither the religious nor the economic perspective was conductive to the care and maintenance of the retarded -- nonproductive citizens were expendable.
>
> (Chinn, Dew, & Logan, 1979: 42-43)

An underlying premise in the political sociology of knowledge is that language is not neutral. It reflects one's own values, one's cultural heritage, and one's metaphorical intent. This is a new approach to the language and culture question posed by anthropologists nearly a half century ago. Consider, for example, the role of metaphors in language. Metaphors are nothing more than expressions for a way of seeing things. In science, metaphors are called "theories" or "models". The original concept of **theory** in Greek is related to the words **theater** and **witness.** When one was sent on an envoy to witness a distant event, he was asked to provide his own interpretation of what took place. This was called **theoria.** The very act of seeing or witnessing is **theatetos** and that which is seen is part of the theater of life. Richard H. Brown has argued that the differences between the sciences and the arts are minor. They both rely on metaphor in order to establish a common framework. He notes several "root" metaphors in Western culture which have become endemic in everyday thought. These are the growth metaphor, life as a game, life as a theater, man as a machine, and social interaction as language. What is significant about these metaphors is that they do have cognitive status. Language is, after all, a social barometer and people do convey their underlying thoughts and emotions through metaphors/and through related word categories which sociologists call their rhetoric of motives. Consider a principal who refers to students as "products" whose actions must be "standardize" in order to maintain a greater "efficiency" within the "system". This educator obviously sees the student as a worker in the factory and he also sees himself as the executive and his fellow teachers as foremen and supervisors. This attitude is imbued within the language that he uses. It is part of his way of belief. Similarly, some teachers refer to their classrooms as nothing more that the "cross roads" in a long "journey" in which one cannot "turn back" but must "forge ahead." There are many dangers on this "journey of life" and the student must be able to travel "the bumpy road ahead" and to not "go off the tracks" or "get stuck in a ditch." Given this caretaker attitude, this teacher is only concerned with the students while they are in his or her "depot" an is anxious to send them on their way. The commitment is temporary and their anxieties begin and end with each cycle of travel. The students are on a journey and one need not worry about them or their cognitive growth beyond their immediate station in life. This use of language is revealing and it does occur. It can be found in "content analyses" done by political scientists and by "sociolinguistic analyses" done by linguists. What is significant about this focus on language is that each scientific discipline comes with a hidden root metaphor. The one that is common to those working with the handicapped is the metaphor of growth or physics. This concept goes back to Aristotle and is referred to under his four causes. Rather then refer to them as causes, it is best to see them as stages in the growth process. The MATERIAL CAUSE, for example, is nothing more than the starting point in the growth process. It is to be found in the material of the ovum or the seed. The FORMAL CAUSE has to do with the many forms or shapes which an object undergoes during the growth process; and the FINAL CAUSE is nothing more than the end product of growth. What holds all of these stages of growth together is the MOTOR CAUSE or the EFFICIENT CAUSE. This is the set of programmed genes which control the growth process itself. Aristotle was obsessed with the concept of change. Most of Greek philosophy, it should be noted, was nothing but an attempt to account for the phenomenon of change. Aristotle's own view of change can be seen in his "doctrine of accidents" in which he argued that growth has a natural history and when things do not follow this natural path, it is the obligation of the polis or city state to intervene. For him, politics was the bringing about of a natural order. Things which were not part of a natural order, for example, were considered to be **pathological**. This concept of "a bad seed" or "an irregular form" underlies Aristotelian thinking, and more importantly, they still provide the root metaphors for numerous professional occupations such as biology, nursing, speech pathology, linguistics, neurology, medicine, positivistic sociology (cf. a cancerous growth on the body politic), models of poltical science, psychiatry, psychology, and systems science, among others. What this means, in effect, is that those who do not fit within what some consider to be the "natural" mainstream of society are pathological; and those who do not speak the official dialect of a nation are considered to have a non-standard language. (What a sociology of knowledge approach to the handicapped to bilinguals) brings is a demand that those who work within the field begin to realize that they have either constructed a social reality in which some groups in society are labelled as pathological or that they have been tacitly operating with a host of cultural assumptions in which their clients have been deemed as outsiders to the system. This is why those who are part of "advocacy" programs for minorities are doing what is best to re-educate the populace.

Another example of how language and culture combine to label some of the social, ethnic, religious and bilingual minorities within the United States can be found in the kinds of terms used for creating a polarity of "insiders" and "outsiders."

INSIDERS	OUTSIDERS
good	bad
intelligent, smart	dumb, creton, mentally retarded, handicapped
	body parts, body functions
human	animal, savage, vermin, microbe

religion	heathen, pagan, cult
citizen	alien, foreigner
adult	child, boy, girl, baby
male	female
analytical	relational

People are fond of creating peer groups in order to provide social meanings to their lives. They label those who do not fit their own system of values as "outsiders." The labels themselves may change, but the ones categorized above are part of the mainstream culture of the United States and should provide some insight into how outsiders are stigmatized through language. This culture places a high premium on intelligence and those who do not fit into this category are pejoratively called by a host of names having to do with non-intelligence. The swear words in English, for example, refer to body parts and body functions. Compliments always refer to how well one does intelligently and when one compliments another as being 'a good animal," i.e., being good at sports, etc., this is not a compliment but a "put down." It says, in essence, that one is at least good at something even though he or she is not intelligent. When it comes to labelling minorities as non-humans, the history texts in this country still openly refer to some racial minorities as animals and savages. Similarly, these groups have been accused of not having religion and what they do have is no more than a cult or worse yet they are heathens or pagans; and their status within society is marginal so that almost by definition some bilingual minorities have been labelled as aliens and foreigners. Perhaps the most revealing use of language can be found in the terms for adulthood. Those who are considered to be full adults are mature, can handle responsibility, and are captains of their own destiny. However, those who are not are mere children. Hence, when a minority male is referred to as a "boy" it should be obvious why he has become enraged by the implications of that term. But, when a woman is called a "girl" she is oblivious to the tacit values that society has placed on her. "You have come a long way, baby" means, in essence, that you have not progressed at all. You are still a child who needs to be controlled by a parent (viz., the male) and who has no rights or privileges within the system. What appears to be an ERA advertisement by a noted cigarette company is no more than a categorization of women as outsiders. On a related matter, consider the role of the male within American society: he is an insider, she is the outsider and all who confuse this dichotomy are viewed pejoratively, (e.g., lesbians, homosexuals, etc.). Finally, in terms of cognitive styles, those who appeal to the left hemisphere of the brain as their basic mode of cognition are seen as mainstreamers. Those who use the right hemisphere of the mind and who excell in music, art, and other relational taks are seen as outsiders (cf. Ramirez and Castaneda on cognitive styles). Bilingual students are outside the system. Their gift for language and their rich bicultural experiences are not considered of any value by the mainstream culture. Similarly, those who are handicapped physically, mentally, or emotionally, are not within the dominant traditions of the system. They are treated as outsiders. Hence, it is not surprising that these minority groups frequently encounter "careers" as outsiders. This view of the handicapped is endemic to American society and is continuously ingrained into the mainstream culture through the use of the mass media.

> Society's view of the handicapped can perhaps be illustrated by the way the media portrays the handicapped population. In general, when the media wishes to emphasize the handicapped, they are portrayed as (1) children, usually severely mentally retarded with obvious physical stigmata or (2) crippled persons, either in a wheelchair or on crutches. Thus, society has a mind set on who the handicapped are. They are children of childlike, and they are severely handicapped mentally or physically or both.
>
> Because society often views the handicapped as children, they are denied the right to feel and want like normal individuals. Teachers and other professional workers can often be observed talking about handicapped individuals in their presence as if they are unable to feel any embarrassment. Their desire to love and be loved is often ignored, and they are often viewed as a sexual, without the right to want someone else.
>
> (Golnick and Chinn, 1983:288)

Richard Sennett has written about the anxieties encountered by those who have allegedly made it within the system. As he notes, they have left their ethnic or religious community in order to join the mainstream culture, but they can never return. Also, they wish to identify with the mainstream culture, but cannot. Either they are emotionally uncomfortable with their new roles or society will not allow them to be fully identified as insiders. Hence, they are doubly alienated. They can no longer return to their old group and they will never belong to the new group as insiders.

> The able-bodied person sees the handicapped people rarely hold good jobs, become culture heroes, or are visible members of the community and concludes that this is "proof" that they cannot hold their own in society. In fact, society systematically discriminates against many perfectly capable blind men and women, cripples, adults with reading disabilities, epileptics, and so on.
>
> (Gliedman & Roth, 1980:22-23)

The concepts outlined in the enclosed bibliography reflect this sociology of knowledge approach to problems of bilingualism and to studies dealing with handicapped persons. It argues that the underlying assumptions of such investigations need to be ascertained and that those who pose as neutral scientists in this process are not. They are part of the problem. They are the social enforcers of someone else's moral entrepreneurship. Those whom they seek to help are the victims of the very process of which they are a part. They are by no means neutral bystanders and their studies are not immune to a host of cultural and social conventions and epistemological premises.

Selected Bibliography

FOR: DEL GREEN ASSOCIATES,INC AND DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION - SPECIAL EDUCATION BRANCH

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AREA: Cognitive Linguistic Development & Sociocultural Language Relationships

COMMENT: The items listed in this bibliography are interdisciplinary in that they incorporate the social psychology of language, the political sociology of language, cognitive linguistics and developmental linguistics. Some of the references are not very recent, but they were included because their views are still being promulgated internationally and espoused by various national policy making agencies. Hence, they are relevant to the intent and nature of the project.

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Adorno, T.W.;Frenkel-Brunswick, E.; Levison, D.J.; & Sanford, R.N. **The Authoritarian Personality.** New York: Harper and Row, 1950

The study of the authoritarian personality was a major focus of research during the Second World War. Kurt Lewin and his associates, Lippitt and White, used a laboratory paradigm to compare the Nazi-type authoritarian leadership with its democratic and laissez-faire counterpart. The studies began with a concern about anti-Semiticism and were conducted within a psychoanalytic framework (Fromm, Reich, and Erickson). It concluded that prejudice is not an isolate within a person, but functions as an integrted component of personality. Consequently, the research was channelled into a study of personality types and an effort was made to ascertain the ways in which an individual was persistent in his or her way of thinking, feeling and behaving. Their results demonstrated that there is a rigidity as well as an intolerance to ambiguity among authoritarian types. Such a person, they noted, is concerned with status and sucess and has a basic feeling of insecurity. Parents of these individuals, they discovered, were concerned with achieving conventional goals and were socially and economically marginal, anxious about their positions and resorted to threatening or harsh child-rearing practices. What is significant about this research for dealing with the bilinguals and handicapped individuals is such attitudes play a detrimental role in the social expectations of their community. Strategies used in dealing with these authoritarian types will have to differ substantially from those whose biases result from cultural stereotypes, a lack of information, or a lack of personal interaction skills with others who differ from them.

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Anglin studied the manner in which children acquire the meaning of adjectives. He noted that when adults are asked to develop adjectival associations, they always put these items into logcial categories."Good,"for example, would elictite its antithesis, "bad." For children, however, the associations were of an emotive nature. The concept of "good" might be paired with "chair, love, food," or whatever else came to mind at the time. Anglin saw this development towards logical categories as a natural evolution of semantics. However, there are other possible conclusions. It may represent a natural enfoldment of the Piagetian categories as a child moves from the symbolic stage into the formal stage of growth. It may be a process of secondary socialization brought on by the society in which the world view of the child is supplanted by those of adults with their concerns for rationalism and positivistic thinking. If this state of affairs is a natural enfoldment, it does have implications for diagnosing the speech of the mentally retarded, etc. If, on the other hand, it is a process of acculturation into the hoste society, then it does have implications for the bilingual and bicultural child.

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With the recent awareness of the hemispherical dominance in the brains of certain individual with cognitive style problems, there has been a plethora of research papers on the role of the right hemisphere of the brain in human information processing. Arnheim adds to this knowledge by arguing that the right brain is not only involved in Gestalt recognition, intuition, creativity and emotions, but it is also the functional center for visual thinking. Although this may be an oversimplification, it is a significant point to make since some cultures such as the Germanic favors the analyticality and the sequential processing of informational characteristically associated with the right hemisphere of the brain, and others such as certain American Indian tribes, culturally favor the activities normally characterized by the right hemisphere of the brain. There are many who have made this very claim as a result of their research (Kaplan and TenHouten, Ramirez and Castañeda, Gavriel Salomon, etc), but it was Arnheim who specifically tied this research to the world of art history, and visual literacy. Recently, Betty Edwards did a doctoral dissertation on **Drawing with the Right Brain** in which she elaborates on the role of the right hemisphere of the brain in acquiring visual literacy. The implications of this and other related research for bilingual literacy and cognmitive styles in the classroom are numerous. Cf. Ramirez and Castañeda for further discussion.

Becker, Howard S. **Outsiders: Studies in the Sociology of Deviance and Labelling Theory.** N.Y.: The Free Press, 1966

The process of stigmatization is a social phenomenon which is best analyzed and discussed under the rubric of the political sociology of language. Becker is one of the few symbolic interactionists who directly addresses the issues from this interdisciplinary framework. He brings into focus the role of the "moral crusader" or "moral entrepreneur" who defines deviance as a personal threat to his or her social reality and who wishes to deal with this cognitive dissonance through legislation addressed to political, social, ethnic, and religious minorities. He also correctly highlights the roles placed by social enforcers, those who merely carry out the dictates of the law. These enforcers selectively uphold the law so that it is directed at the victims of such moral legislation. These are the unjustly accused who are singled out as examples of law-breakers even though they may not have done any wrong. Of special interest to Becker's work is the chapter on labelling because it pertains directly to the development of public attitudes towards the handicapped, the bilinguals, and other minorities. It also provides a rationale for the preponderance of legislation by advocate groups who are trying to politically balance social history, and tradition.

Bernstein, Basil. **Class, Codes and Control 1: Theoretical Studies Towards a Sociology of Knowledge.** London: Routledge, Kegan and Paul, 1971

The concepts of "elaborated" and "restricted" codes are synonymous with the work of Basil Bernstein, a Bristish sociologist and protegee of Professor Mary Douglas. His notoriety in the United States grew out of numerous conflicts with sociolinguists about the role of restricted codes among ethnic minorities, particularly Blacks. In his earlier writings, Bernstein used elaborated codes for the cognitive styles associated with the left hemisphere of the brain with its focus on verbality, syntactic complexity, rhetorical syllogisms, and logical forms of argumentation. This is the idealized speech of the middle class. The restriced code, by contrast, referred to the cognitive tasks which are part of the right hemisphere of the brain, viz., nonverbal behavior (kinesic interaction), the processing of visual information, emotive gestures, and intuition. This is the normal pattern of many microcultures which are labelled as nonstandard. Bernstein was trying to make sense out of the large influx of students within the public school system who possessed these cogntive styls and who prior to 1944 and the Public Education Act were excluded from traditional formal education. His original dichotomy was overly simplistic, but essentially correct. He did not include, for example, psychological studies of cognitive styles, nor did he focus on parent-child interaction studies which attempt to account for such diversity of behavior. In the next decade, Bernstein was forced to address these issues, but because his model was only social, he failed to adequately incorporate the more informative psychological research. What is unfortunate in this model of language in the classroom is the technical term "code." For Bernstein it was tantamount to "cognitive style," but for American linguists such as William Labov, it mean only linguistic form. When Labov attacked Bernstein's concepts, he was right but for the wrong reasons. Obviously, this area of research needs to be further clarified. The significance of this work for bilingual minorities, it should be noted, is that it partially describes the conflict between the official elaborated code of the school system and the unofficial and stigmatized restricted code of the various microcultures. Joan Tough adequately explains these.

Brown, Richard H. **A Poetic for Sociology: Toward a Logic of Discovery for the Human Sciences.** N.Y.: Cambridge University Press, 1978

A recent trend in multidisciplinary studies is the realization that the differences between the aims, goals, methodology, and practice within the arts and the sciences are not as distinct as once believed. Robert Nisbet made this claim in the **Sociology of Art** and so have Lyman and Scott in **The Sociology of the Absurd** and in **The Social Drama of Reality.** Brown is a student of the New School for Social Research and he also adheres to this premise. What makes his work unique is that he deals with the base or root metaphors which underlie various disciplines within the European or Western culture. He demonstrates that many academic disciplines are culture bound and caught up in a past "Zeitgeist" and that this worldview or "Weltgeist" can be found in the vocabulary of motives which make up a discipline. Each field grows out of an illustrative metaphor and with the passage of time, this root metaphor gathers more and more iconic through the acquisition of details and structural elaborations. Sometimes these metaphors fail. Thomas Kuhn refers to this as a "paradigm shift", but it is essentially the recognition of a metaphorical discrepancy within the normal science of the more traditional epistemological frameworks. Nevertheless, the role of metaphor in both the arts and the sciences is the same. They provide perspectives on the organization and the acquisition of knowledge. The importance of this work for researchers in the fields of special education should be obvious. This field of endeavor is a natural outgrowth of Aristotelian concept of **physis.** Everything in life follows a natural history of development. Those things which do not are deemed pathological. In the realm of social history, the parameters of normality are less clearly defined and as a consequence many of the beliefs inherent in the discipline are reflections of cultural values. Western cultures, for example, idiolize superior cognitive abilities and downplays all other attributes. Consequently, such labels as "retarded, moron, idiot" etc all take on a pejorative meaning within science because of the values imparted to it from the host society.

Cicourel, Aaron V.; Jennings, K.H.; Jennings, S.H.M.; Leiter, K.C.W.; MacKay, Robert; Mehan, Hugh; & Roth, D.R. **Language Use and School Performance.** N.Y.: Academic Press, 1974

The senior author, Aaron Cicourel, has undertaken in this volume to demonstrate how positivistic methodologies differ substantially from those employed in phenomenological sociology. His theoretical model is that of the sociology of knowledge and he demonstrates how children are evaluated by teachers upon their entrance into the first grade and out of kindergarten. He uses videotapes and interviews predominantly and discovers that many of the children answered questions to standardized examinations which were written by adults and which reflect their own world views. Hence, what appears to be a natural response by the child is seen as erroneous by the adult tester. This research group interviews the children and find that their view of social reality is different and as a consequence standardized tests fail to adequately capture the cognitive processes employed by children in the dealings in the school system. The results of these studies are surprising in that students are frequently judged by non-academic measures. The study was done in the San Diego area and reflects numerous underlying assumptions regarding Chicano children under the control of Anglo school administrators. One of the implications of this research for the study of handicapped bilinguals is that they are being evaluated by a host of tacit assumptions within the mainstream culture and how they actually perform in tests is incidental to the labels that have been placed on them and which determines their social careers within the system.

Davis, Nanette J. **Sociological Constructions of Deviance: Perspectives and Issues in the field.** Dubuque, Iowa: Wm C. Brown Company Publishers, 1980

This volume provides an overview of the major models of deviance within sociology and social psychology. It discusses the social pathologists model, the Chicago School, the functionalist approach, anomie theory, value/conflict theory, and labelling theory. The social pathologist is aligned with the dictates of social Darwinisim and is implicit in many current theoretical models in which social, cultural, and linguistic deprivation is espoused as the cause of out-group behavior. The Chicago School is currently associated with the dramaturgical model of Goffman and other symbolic interactionists. Anomie theory attempts to account for group behavior in socio-economic terms and reflects many models currently employed in governmental studies on bilingualism, retardation, and other forms of minority interaction. The value/conflict model is existential and phenomologic in its epistemological framework and sees power as a reciprocal force which influences how groups are labelled. Labelling theory deals with the attribution of pejorative designations against groups who are politically, socially, ethnologically and culturally of a minority status. This volume is important because it allows researchers to uncover the tacit assumptions they may hold as a profession in dealing with minorities.

Douglas, Jack D.; Adler, Patricia A.; Adler, Peter; Fontana, Andrea C.; Freeman, Robert; & Kotarba, Joseph A. **Introduction to the Sociologies of Everyday Life.** Boston, Mass.: Allyn and Bacon, 1980

Jack Douglas is the chief author of this anthology of studies in the sociology of knowledge. It provides an overview of existential sociology and relates it to some of the leading theories and applications of current research models. The chapters deal with symbolic interactionism, dramaturgical theory, labelling theory, ethnomethodology, and existential sociology. In each case, it is argued that people create conversational images of others and employ these social constructions in evaluating them, interacting with them, and labelling them. These images are endemic in the kinds of roles that people employ in dealing with others and it is also intrinsic to the metaphors and the vocabulary of motives that they employ in conversing with others. The implications of this volume for current research in bilingualism are numerous. The discussion demonstrate, for example, how people use language as a social marker in which they construct an in-group or Gemeinschaft and that they concentrate their collective energies in establishing a recognizable out-group against whom they consciously label as subcultural, non-standard, and incompetent. Bilinguals, it is argued, have been designated as the out-group by the mainstream culture and that this same pejorative label has been attributed to other social, political, religious, and racial minorities. Hence, the handicapped are not only victims this phenomenon, they are doublely alienated if they also happen to be in other out-group categories such as being bilinguals who are characteristically associated with a racial group.

Farnham-Diggory, Sylvia. **Cognitive Process in Education: A Psychological Preparation for Teaching and Curriculum Development.** N.Y.: Harper and Row, 1972

Farnham-Diggory is one of the more articulate scholars in the area of educational psychology. She has dealt with handicapped groups and has numerous publications in that area. In this volume she provides an integrated approach to dealing with psychological and physiological problems within the school system. Her approach is an amalgam of cognitive psychology (the Process Approach) and Piagetan psycholinguistics. Her overview covers cognitive development (sensorimotor intelligence, etc.), systems of information processing (Bloom's cognitive taxonomy, models and structures of thought, etc.), motivation (personality, culture, competence, Lewin's field theory, etc.), language (acquisition, classroom interaction, the development of comprehension, etc), visual information processinge (cognitive maps, mathematical processes, etc.) and creativity. Her volume is cited because of its excellent interdisciplinary integration of knowledge across several language related professions, even though it is dated in some respects. She relates language to other aspects of cognitive behavior and does not see it as a separate function. Hence, her position is Piagetan rather than Chomskyian. The significance of this volume is not only to be found in its interdisciplinary integration of knowledge, but also in its ability to relate directly to problem areas in special education, language disability, and cross-cultural conflicts.

Goldstein, Kenneth M. & Blackman, Sheldon. **Cognitive Style: Five Approaches and Relevant Research.** N.Y.: John Wiley and Sons, 1978

The study of cognitive styles appears under numerous labels within various academic fields. In sociology, for example, it is called "codes" (cf. Bernstein's **Class, Codes, and Control.**). In this volume, the various models of cognitive styles within the field of psychology are discussed. These include authoritarianism, Dogmatism, personal construct theory, integrated complexity, and field dependence. These models grew, in part, out of studies in psychological differentiation , from personality theory, and cognitive maps. Authoritarianism deals with how people handle rigidity, and the intolerance for ambuiguity. Dogmatism is associated with the work of Rokeach and how people are either open or closed in certain cognitive domains. Personal construct theory is associated with the research of George Kelly and assumes that one is constantly organizing the world cognitively in terms of personal constructs. This view is concomitant with the sociology of knowledge approach. Integrated complexity sees people as information processors. This means that people both integrate and differentiate from the world around them (information processing theory). Field dependence grew out of Witkin's work on psychological differentiation and is now most closely aligned with the concept of cognitive styles in the literature. It assumes that each hemisphere of the mind is allocated certain physiological and neurological functions in the processesing of information. This volume is important because it not only balances the research on cognitive styles by demonstrating what the various models are and how they are related, but it also provides insightful historical information on each model. If research in bilingualism is to deal with cognitive styles, researchers need to become aware of these five main approaches to conceptualization.

Festinger, Leon. **A Theory of Cognitive Dissonance.** Stanford, California: Stanford University, 1962

People need consistency in their lives and when things do not fit into their scheme of things, they will alter the reality and perceptions of others to their own system of thought. Festinger is not concerned with how peoople go about constructing a personal epistemological framework in life, but prefers to observe and analyze the various strategies that are used to deny alternative world views. The first and most obvious strategy is one of withdrawal. When the conflicting news of other systems impinge upon and attempt to destroy a coherency of belief, the natural urge is to avoid the bearer of bad news. Following avoidance-reaction, another strategy is to belittle or devalue those who create dissonance. This takes the form of labelling, stigmatization, and the sociology of deviance (cf. H. Becker). The final stage, according to Festinger, is for people to submit to the pressures of the macro-society and to merge with the masses by denying their own world views. Unfortunately, Festinger has overlooked what has been called a state of "Existential Angst" in which individuals feel displaced within society and are also unsure of themselves. They neither release their biographical histories nor accept the new order of things. This is the state of affairs of many bilinguals in a society of monolinguals, and this is the condition that the physically and mentally handicapped face in a culture that equates difference with deficit.

Klapp, Orrin E. **Opening and Closing: Strategies of Information Adaptation in Society.** N.Y.: Cambridge University Press, 1978

Orrin Klapp uses the metaphor of social noise in his reformulation of information theory. He argues that the traditional Rokeachian approach of open and closed personality, and the Poperian view of open and closed societies are inadequate because they cannot account for the diversity of behavior exhibited by people in dealing with human information. Noise is anthing that comes into the information channel and interferes with the message. However, what is noise depends on whether or not the signals are redundant or diverse and whether or not the society in which one lives is conceived as being ordered or in a state of chaos. In an ordered society where diversity is welcomed, for example, there is an emphasis on growth, liberalism, and discovery. But, the same diversity of signals can provide a threat to a society which has a predilection for redundancy. It favors tradition and ritual. Among the other quadrants of his model are those societies in which the world is disordered or in a state of entropy. Under these circumstances, variety creates information overload and redundancy produces banality. What Klapp is arguing, in effect, is that how one views the world and information about that world depends on which quadrant he or she is in. Since there are generation gaps within families, this model explains why people witness the same event but arrive at different conclusions about what they saw. One may be viewed, for example, as sincere by one party and as outspoken but another. Klapp's model is significant for bilingual research because it recognizes the importance of biographical histories within generations of social groups. In advertising terminology, his work is tantamount to a market survey of contemporary culture. It by passes the overly simplistic view of society in purely socioeconomic terms.

CHAPTER IV

Review of Research Affecting Educational Programming for Handicapped Students

Teacher Training

Prepared for Del Green Associates, Inc.

by

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Introduction 1

Results of a National Needs Study 3

Need to Comply With Legislation/Regulations 6

Recent History of Bilingual Special Education Teacher Training. 8

Identifying Critical Competencies 12

Characteristics of Current Training Programs 37

Program Planning and Institutionalization 43

Model Training Programs. 47

Recommendations. 52

References 54

Appendix

Introduction

One of the greatest priorities for educators is the task of providing the most appropriate and effective educational programs and experiences for various student populations. Up to the present time, one population of students that has been largely ignored has been the exceptional bilingual. In this paper, exceptional and handicapped are used interchangeably. "Exceptional" includes students who are handicapped in a variety of ways: the mentally retarded, the learning disabled, the emotionally disturbed, the physically handicapped, and the visually and hearing impaired. In addition, however, to these handicapping conditions, bilingual exceptional students come from culturally and linguistically different backgrounds and have not acquired proficiency in the English language. This population may be best described as culturally and linguistically different exceptional students (CLDE). Although the actual number of CLDE students is not known, an estimate of this number was obtained during a 1976 national study concerning the overlap of identified Title I students and Title VII students. According to the results of the study, approximately one-half million students aged 5 to 21 years were handicapped and from non-English language backgrounds (NCES 1980).

To teach these students in the language they can best understand is to build on their linguistic and cultural strengths and is compatible with sound educational practice. During the past 50 years, a great deal of emphasis has been placed on the education of handicapped students through various special education programs. This movement reached its peak in 1974, with the passage of P.L. 94-142 The Educational for All Handicapped Children's Act. The education of handicapped children continues to be strong national priority up to the present time. Even more recently, within the past 15 years there has been a renewed interest in bilingual education. The United States Congress passed the Bilingual Education Act (P.L. 90-247) in 1968. This act made it possible for local school districts to receive federal funding for the implementation of bilingual programs designed to meet the needs of students with limited English proficiency.

Recent developments in litigation and educational research dealing with handicapped children of limited English proficiency suggests that educators must seriously address the issues related to designing and implementing bilingual special education programs. One of the most critical needs in this overall national effort is to prepare a cadre of quality trained bilingual special education teachers who will be able to provide the necessary educational experiences that will assist these students develop to their fullest potential.

Any discussion of bilingual special education teacher training should occur within the broader context of multicultural education. In 1979, multicultural teacher training was formally institutionalized by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). This influential accreditation agency adopted a multicultural education policy statement which requires all teacher training programs to include a multicultural component. Since this requirement is relatively new, many schools of education are still in the beginning stages of planning and implementing the component. With time and careful implementation this requirement will have a significant impact on teacher preparation programs. At the heart of multicultural education is the concept of cultural pluralism. Advocates of this concept endorse the principle that there is no one model American. Cultural pluralism not only appreciates but promotes cultural diversity. It recognizes that it is the unqiue contributions of various cultural groups that strengthen and enrich our society.

Ten years ago the Commission of Multicultural Education of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education also adopted an important policy statement. One of the paragraphs of this statement is particularly significant. It reads as follows:

> "To endorse cultural pluralism is to endorse the principle that there is no one model American. To endorse cultural pluralism is to understand and appreciate the differences that exist among the nation's citizens. It is to see these differences as a positive force in the continuing development of a society which professes a wholesome respect for the intrinsic worth of every individual. Cultural pluarlism is more than a temporary accommodation to placate racial and ethnic minorities. It is a concept that aims toward a heightened sense of being and wholeness of the entire society based on the unique strength of each of its parts." (AACTE, 1973, p. 264).

Bilingual special education teacher training is one strategy for promoting cultural pluralism in our schools. More importantly it is an important effort designed to promote equal educational opportunity for limited English proficient students who are also handicapped.

As an emerging discipline bilingual special education draws heavily from both bilingual education as well as special education. Both of these fields have been very actively involved in teacher training activities for many years. Bilingual special education teacher training, however, requires much more than the borrowing of courses from each of the parent disciplines. Bilingual special education requires a carefully articulated and planned convergence of these two disciplines which results in a new and unique body of knowledge.

Results of a National Needs Study

A recent study, sponsored by the BUENO Center for Multicultural Education of the University of Colorado (McClean 1981), demonstrated the extent of the need for bilingual special education programs and teachers in U.S. school districts. The specific problem dealt with in this study stemmed logically from the general problem of inadquate programs for CLDE children and was two-fold in nature: 1) to ascertain how extensive the need to develop bilingual special education programs was in school districts funded through Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, and 2) to identify the services, resources, and teacher competencies most needed in order to create high quality programs.

The sample of school district personnel was large and representative. It consisted basically of bilingual education directors and special education directors in 50 percent of the school districts in the U.S. which received funds through the Bilingual Education Act. The districts in the sample were selected randomly by state, and every state which received at least one Title VII grant was included in the study. The percentage of directors who returned questionnaires was high. One or both of the directors returned them in 93.24 percent of the districts surveyed.

The more salient of the many findings of the study are summarized as follows:

1. The study indicated that both bilingual education directors and special education directors considered the concept of bilingual special education to be a very viable educational alternative. Collectively, the respondents rated bilingual special education as being "an excellent idea."

2. Despite the positive endorsement given by the respondents to the concept of bilingual special education, only 31 to 32 percent of the school districts which received Title VII funds had or were planning programs which would be operational within two years. Programs were located which served only 17 of the approximately 80 language groups served by regular bilingual programs. Moreover, many existing programs were not equipped to serve all of CLDE children in the district. A higher percentage of rural districts had programs than did suburban districts.

3. Several language minorities were often served by a single district, and 40 of the 45 counted as having programs served Spanish-speaking children.

4. Of the resources and personnel identified as being necessary in order to create high quality bilingual special education programs, bilingual audiologists were most difficult for the districts to find. The following were rated as "very difficult to locate": bilingual speech therapists, bilingual psychologists, bilingual special educators, curricular plans for bilingual special education and instructional materials for bilingual special education and instructional materials for bilingual special education. The following items and personnel were rated as being "somewhat difficult to locate": appropriate measures of intellectual ability for linguistically and culturally different children, bilingual counselors, and bilingual lay personnel to work with handicapped children.

5. In training programs for bilingual special educators, all of the 27 competencies and attitudes identified in this study were rated as being highly important; however, the respondents rated the five following competencies as being "of extreme importance". They included: 1) the desire to work with limited-English proficient, handicapped children; 2) the development of knowledge of and sensitivity toward the language group to be served; 3) knowledge of methods for dealing effectively with the parents of limited-English proficient, handicapped children; 4) knowledge of instructional methods for teaching English to limited-English proficient, handicapped children; and 5) the ability to develop individual curricular and instructional plans for limited-English proficient, handicapped children.

6. The concept of bilingual special education was rated as being beneficial for children with all of the identified handicapping conditions. However, it was rated as being more beneficial for the less severely handicapped than the more severely handicapped.

7. Six alternatives were identified for the delivery of bilingual special education to children in need of it. They included: 1) a special institution; 2) self-contained bilingual special education classrooms in regular schools; 3) bilingual special education resource rooms in regular schools where students spend a portion of the day to supplement instruction in regular bilingual classes; 4) help from an itinerant bilingual special education teacher to supplement regular bilingual classrooms instruction; 5) paraprofessional help; 6) attending regular bilingual classes with minimal extra support services. Usually a range of two or three of the above alternatives were recommended by most respondents as appropriate for less severely handicapped children and the self-contained bilingual classroom was most often judged appropriate for more severely handicapped children.

A total of fifteen recommendations were made based on the conclusions of the study, which were in turn based on the findings. The most significant finding was that, nationwide, directors of both bilingual education and special education programs viewed the concept of bilingual special education as a viable educational alternative. The premise that the collective judgement of these directors is correct underlies the following summation of the more important recommendations, which, if carried out, would amount to very substantial changes in public education.

1. The number of language groups being served should be expanded.

2. In order to enable school districts to improve service, the quantity of training programs for bilingual special educators at colleges and universities should be increased, and many existing training programs should be improved.

3. In educational programs for bilingual special educators, emphasis should be placed on training the personnel and developing the resources, discussed in the findings, which the respondents found "very difficult to locate". Secondary emphasis should be placed on developing resources judged to be "somewhat difficult to locate".

4. For teachers, emphasis should be placed on all of the 27 competencies identified in the study, but primary emphasis should be placed on the five mentioned in conjunction with the findings, which were deemed by the respondents to be "of extreme importance".

5. While bilingual special education programs should be developed for all limited-English proficient children encumbered by one or more handicapping conditions, when programs are being developed priority should be given to those less severely handicapped. Most students in the following categories would be examples: hard of hearing, learning disabled, mildly mentally retarded, orthopedically handicapped, other health impaired, speech impaired, and visually handicapped. Secondary consideration should be given those more severely handicapped since respondents believed they would benefit less by such programs. Deaf, deaf/blind, multiple handicapped, severely retarded, and severely emotionally disturbed would be examples of handicaps in the latter category.

6. An important goal in program planning should be to provide a range of bilingual educational alternatives. However, in program development, emphasis should be placed on the alternatives judged by respondents to be the most effective. The bilingual resource room where handicapped pupils would receive specialized bilingual assistance while attending regular bilingual classes would be most effective for the largest number of less severely handicapped students. Self-contained bilingual special education classrooms were judged to be the most widely applicable alternative for severely handicapped children.

Obviously, much remains to be accomplished if the educational potential of CLDE children throughout the country is to be realized. This study certainly demonstrates the need for a broad range of services and resources. It also lends credence to the need for teacher training. The competencies identified in the study will be discussed in more detail in a subsequent section of this paper.

Need to Comply With Legislation/Regulations

There is a body of educational and Civil Rights legislation and regulations that have been enacted in recent years to protect the rights of the CLDES. Compliance with these legal and regulatory requirements is another critical variable supporting the need for initiating and improving bilingual special education personnel preparation.

According to the Office for Civil Rights (Gutierrez 1982), the current requirements are as follows:

1. Every state and its localities shall provide or make available a free appropriate public education for all handicapped children ages 3-18. (P.L. 94-142, Section 504)

2. Every school district shall conduct a language screening at the beginning of each school year for all new students to determine if there is the influence of a language other than English on the child. (Lau)

3. If the initial screening does find the influence of a language other than English, then a language assessment shall be made to determine language dominance and proficiency. (Lau)

4. If it is determined that a child is handicapped and is also found to be of limited English proficiency, then an individualized education program (IEP) shall be developed which reflects the child's language related needs. (Title VI, P.L. 94-142, Section 504)

5. When a child is evaluated, the instruments used shall be appropriate and the testing shall be nondiscriminatory. (P.L. 94-142, Section 504)

6. Tests and other evaluation materials must be validated for the specific purpose for which they are used and administered by trained personnel in conformance with the instructions provided by their producers. (P.L. 94-142, Section 504)

7. Tests and other evaluation materials must be tailored to assess specific areas of educational needs and must not merely provide a single general intelligence quotient. (P.L. 94-142, Section 504)

8. Tests are to be selected and administered to ensure that, when administered to a student with impaired sensory, manual, or speaking skills, the test results accurately reflect the student's aptitude, achievement level, or whatever other factor the test purports to measure, rather than reflecting the student's impaired sensory, manual, or speaking skills. (P.L. 94-142, Section 504)

9. In interpreting evaluation data and in making placement decisions, information shall be drawn from a variety of sources, including aptitude and achievement tests, teacher recommendations, physical condition, or social or cultural background, and adaptive behavior. (P.L. 94-142, Section 504)

10. The parents of a child shall be informed in their native language of all due process rights. An interpreter shall be provided at all meetings if the parent cannot communicate in English. (Title VI, P.L. 94-142, Section 504)

Many school districts are in a state of non-compliance with the above requirements because they lack the trained personnel to implement effective programs. School districts are doing what they can through inservice efforts. This short term solution is important but limited. A long term strategy for addressing the problem is needed. This strategy is the initiation as well as the improvement of bilingual special education personnel preparation.

Recent History of Bilingual Special Education Teacher Training

The problem of preparing quality teachers and teacher trainers and other leadership personnel in this specialized area is not new and has already been addressed by the Office of Special Education as well as by a few universities and colleges throughout the country.

In 1978, the Bureau for the Handicapped of the Department of Education, cognizant of this lack of qualified bilingual/bicultural personnel, took steps to correct the situation. Through its Hispanic initiative, which was later extended to other linguistically and culturally different groups as well, the Bureau encouraged the establishment of personnel preparation programs which would both recruit and train bilingual/bicultural professionals to work with CLDE students. In 1979 an initial group of 22 personnel preparation programs were funded under this initiative. Since then the number has increased annually. Thus, while there were a few programs functioning prior to the initiative, in a real sense the preparation of personnel to work with CLDE began in 1979. And like any new field there is a need to identify, define and improve current practices.

In the Spring of 1980 and again in the Spring of 1981 professionals engaged in preparing personnel to work with CLDE students met in the Washington D.C. area in workshops sponsored by ACCESS, Inc., and funded by the Department of Education. Some of the purposes of the two workshops were to define the field, determine the competencies which should be required of both trainers and trainees, and share ideas about philosophies and methodology. According to Grossman (1982), one of the results of these workshops was an agreement to replace the term bilingual special education with the term "the education of culturally and linguistically different exceptional students", a term which emphasizes cultural as well as linguistic differences. It was also agreed that persons preparing to work with such students needed to have the skills included in the field of bilingual/bicultural education, special education and a third group of cross-cultural "convergent" skills which were not found in either but are vital to working with CLDES.

Three examples of the need for the third component follow. In the area of assessment, bilingual/bicultural educators may receive training in the assessment of language dominance and proficiency. They may also be prepared to assess and develop academic readiness and achievement in both their students' first and second languages. As one aspect of their training, special educators are prepared to assess academic proficiency in language arts and assess and remediate learning disabilities involving language development using instruments and procedures developed for English-speaking acculturated monocultural students. However, neither the bilingual/bicultural educator nor the special educator is trained in the assessment and development of language when this development is impaired in some manner and the child is not from an English speaking home. Persons who complete both a bilingual/bicultural training program still will not be equipped to utilize culturally and linguistically appropriate special education assessment and instructional procedures with non-English speaking CLDES.

In the area of counseling, counselors who work with students are trained to determine when their counselee's problems are intrinsically or extrinsically caused. When the causes of the students' problems are intrinsic (within the students) they may try to help the students accept the responsibility, blame and guilt for their actions, and/or believe that they can control their own lives. When the causes are extrinsic (outside the students) they may encourage the students to assert themselves, to utilize methods to change their environments, or to not assume responsibility and guilt for things which may be beyond their control. When CLDES react to prejudicial treatment and cultural conflicts by withdrawing or rebelling, counselors who are unaware of the prejudices and cultural conflicts which these students face may assume that the cause of their behavior is instrinsic. As a result, they may use techniques designed to change the students' shy or aggressive personalities instead of using techniques to help them deal more effectively with a hostile or insensitive environment.

As a final example, teachers or counselors who are unaware that in some cultures it is a sign of disrespect to express a lack of understanding or a difference of opinion may believe that students or parents who politely act as if they understand and agree actually do understand and accept the suggestions made to them. When in fact, they may neither agree or understand. This type of cross-cultural misunderstanding can have serious consequences in assessment, instruction, and parent involvement.

Having identified these three groups of competencies, those included in bilingual/bicultural education, those included in special education, and those convergent/cross-cultural abilities not included in either of the two traditional fields, the participants in the ACCESS workshops enumerated specific competencies within each of these three components which should characterize both trainers and well prepared trainees. When the trainers evaluated themselves, it was clear that, with very few exceptions, they had not acquired all of these competencies. Typically, trainers had been trained in either bilingual/bicultural education or special education, but not in both, not in convergent skills. Those few who were trained in both areas tended to lack some of the cross-cultural competencies not included in either area and each trainer had his or her strengths and weaknesses. It became clear that a number of models of personnel preparation were being utilized.

In January 1982, Grossman, the director of bilingual special education at San Jose State College, addressed a group of bilingual special education teacher trainers at the University of Colorado BUENO Center institute about how these training needs should be met. His comments are summarized in the following areas.

Trainers

> The first priority in bilingual special education should be the continued preparation of quality teacher trainers. To produce trainees who are truly competent in the three components mentioned above, it is essential that their trainers become competent as well.

Competencies

> General competencies in bilingual and/or special education are not enough. Determine which existing competencies are the ones that make a difference in the real life outcomes of trainees' efforts to educate and rehabilitate the CLDES and add convergent cross-cultural competencies not presently included in training programs. For example, the competency 'the trainee designs curriculum and instructional programs that are based on behavioral objectives considering cultural variables' is a first step. Now the specific cultural traits trainees should take into consideration when working with CLDES should be enumerated. How and in what ways methods of instruction, motivation, classroom management, counseling, assessment, etc., should be adapted to these cultural differences must be specified. This must be done in all cultural minorities that exist in the school. In other words, making trainees culturally sensitive is not sufficient. They should become culturally literate. Teacher training in bilingual special education methods and materials which will prepare trainees who will neither reject cultural relativism and utilize the same approaches with all students regardless of their cultural differences nor fail to see individual differences within cultures because of cultural stereotyping.

Training Models

> Without more research and experience, it is difficult to know conclusively which models produce teachers who are the most responsive to the needs of CLDES. However, while such research is being conducted, every effort should be taken to insure that all relevant disciplines are included in bilingual special education teacher training programs, and that these disciplines collaborate rather than compete. Local and regional needs should be considered and the training program should provide comprehensive services for the broadest possible spectrum of CLDES evaluation.

Evaluation

As training programs are developed, it should be asked whether the methods and materials are relevant, effective and efficient in serving CLDES. Data should be evaluated with an open mind, modifying, adjusting, and adding to the programs as necessary.

Research

Although bilingual special education is new, it is grounded in such fields as bilingual/bicultural education, multicultural education, psycholinguistics, special education, and anthropology, fields in which there are considerable bodies of relevant knowledge. Therefore, bilingual special education teacher training programs should be based at least in part on hard knowledge. A recurrent problem in bilingual special education is that this knowledge is not always available. One of the priorities in bilingual special education should be a collaborative effort to answer the questions: what is known about bilingual special education and what is yet to be determined? The answers to the first question will enable trainers to design better programs. The answer to the second question will guide researchers to areas of need.

Communication

There is a great need for increased communication among teacher trainers and training programs. People should not be spending considerable time and energy duplicating what others have already accomplished. All can profit from the experiences and accomplishments of each other. A permanent network of communication should be established.

Identifying Critical Competencies

A few scholars have attempted to delineate the competencies that are needed by bilingual special education teachers. The following list of competencies were presented in a paper prepared for the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Bilingual Special Education project (Baca 1980).

Language: The bilingual/bicultural special education teacher should be able to demonstrate competency in the following areas:

1. Ability to understand and speak the native language of the student.
2. Ability to read and write the native language at an acceptable level of competency.
3. Ability to teach any part of the curriculum in English and in the native language of the student.

4. Ability to communicate with parents in their native language regarding the academic progress of their child.

Linguistics

1. Ability to understand the theory and process of first and second language acquisition.
2. Ability to deal with specific areas of interlanguage interference and positive transfer.
3. Ability to understand phonological, grammatical and lexical characteristics of both languages and their implications for classroom instruction.
4. Ability to distinguish between local dialects and the standard language.

Assessment

1. Ability to administer a variety of language dominance/proficiency tests.
2. Ability to conduct a non-discriminatory comprehensive diagnostic assessment.
3. Ability to evaluate the child from a social-emotional perspective.
4. Ability to evaluate the child from a perceptual-motor perspective.
5. Ability to construct and use criterion referenced measures.

Instruction

1. Ability to prepare individualized educational plans (IEP) based on student needs.
2. Ability to individualize instruction for several students and coordinate large and small group instruction concurrently.
3. Ability to adapt curricula to meet the needs of bilingual handicapped children.

4. Ability to revise materials and activities to make them more linguistically and culturally appropriate for bilingual handicapped children.
5. Ability to construct instructional materials to enhance the curriculum for bilingual handicapped students.
6. Ability to recognize the learning characteristics of various handicapping conditions.
7. Ability to select the proper bilingual instructional approach for each situation.
8. Ability to assess readability levels of materials both in English and in the second language.

Culture

1. Ability to establish rapport with children from a variety of cultural backgrounds.
2. Ability to listen to children and understand the cultural perspective they have.
3. Ability to understand the cultural significance of various handicapping conditions.
4. Ability to work directly with the community in identifying and using cultural resources for instructional purposes.
5. Ability to understand the relationship between language and culture.
6. Ability to understand the process of acculturation and assimilation and its implication for classroom instruction.
7. Ability to understand the history and culture of the target group.

Parents

1. Ability to understand the importance of parental involvement in bridging the gap between the home and school environment for bilingual handicapped students.

2. Ability to understand culture specific child rearing practices and how this may affect classroom behavior.
3. Ability to involve parents in the instructional process.
4. Ability to utilize community resources for the handicapped.
5. Ability to advise parents of their due process rights relative to their child's education.
6. Ability to counsel parents regarding various aspects of their child's handicapping condition.

A survey of public school teachers working with CLDES in a large metropolitan area in the Southwest was conducted by Prieto, Rueda and Rodriguez (1981). A total of 77 teachers from five school districts rated the importance of 18 competencies generated through a literature review. A five-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 not important to 5 very important, was utilized. According to the study the following competencies were rated as the most important by the teachers surveyed, with a mean score of 4.5.

1. Ways to involve the parents of bilingual/multicultural exceptional children in the educational process.
2. How to assess bilingual/multicultural exceptional children in terms of classroom performance, i.e., through the use of task analytic or criterion referenced tests.
3. Specific methods of working with bilingual/multicultural exceptional children in the classroom.

The group of competencies considered to be the next most important by the teachers with a mean score of 4.2 included the following:

4. Familiarizing teachers with the language or dialects of certain bilingual/multicultural exceptional children.
5. How to interpret and use assessment data of a normative nature, i.e., from a psychologist, such as the WISC.

6. Methods of training parents to work more effectively with their own bilingual/multicultural exceptional children.
7. Learning how to act as a resource person/consultant to train other teachers to work with bilingual/multicultural exceptional children.

The following competencies made up the group that was ranked third by the teachers and their mean scores fall between 4.0 and 4.2.

8. Examining the role of parents and family in the education of bilingual/multicultural exceptional children.
9. Examining current research related to the identification and learning characteristics of bilingual/multicultural exceptional children.
10. Examining how to comply with federal and state laws related to the education of bilingual/multicultural children, i.e., how to write an adequate IEP.
11. Defining who the bilingual/multicultural exceptional child is.
12. Examining the cultural backgrounds of exceptional children from different ethnic groups.
13. Learning how to evaluate commercially available programs and/or materials developed for use with bilingual/multicultural exceptional children.

This final group of competencies were considered to be the least important by the teachers and all had a mean score below 4.0.

14. Legal issues related to the assessment and placement of bilingual/multicultural exceptional children in Special Education, i.e., as in P.L. 94-142.
15. Examining any other educational programs dealing with bilingual/multicultural exceptional children in the Southwest.

16. Examining current research on bilingual/multicultural exceptional child, i.e., bicognitive development.
17. Examining the historical backgrounds of bilingual/multicultural children, e.g., migration patterns of the Mexican-American.
18. Learning how to conduct research related to the identification and learning characteristics of bilingual/multicultural exceptional children.

It should be noted that the teachers surveyed were primarily from an Anglo background (85.7%). Mexican-American teachers made up 9.1% of the sample and Black teachers were 5.2% of the total. The competencies rated as most important were in the areas of assessment, instructional methodology and parental involvement.

The study just summarized was based on a small sample of teachers (77) in one Southwestern metropolitan area. The following study (McClean 1981) was a nationwide study that surveyed over 500 directors of special education and bilingual education at the school district level from all over the United States. The study asked these directors to rank the importance of 27 competencies and attitudes identified through a literature review. The following table summarizes this information.

Only five of the above mentioned 27 attitudes and competencies were rated as being of "extreme importance". These were 1) the desire to work with limited-English proficient, handicapped children; 2) the development of knowledge of and sensitivity toward the language group to be served; 3) knowledge of methods for dealing effectively with parents of limited-English proficient, handicapped children; 4) knowledge of instructional methods for teaching English to limited-English proficient, handicapped children, and 5) the ability to develop individual curriculum and instructional plans for limited-English proficient, handicapped children.

Table 1

Opinions of Bilingual Education Directors Versus Special Education Directors on Items 16-42--the Importance of Identified Competencies and Attitudes for Bilingual Special Educators

	Responses					
	Bilingual Ed. Directors		Special Ed. Directors		All Respondents	
Competencies or Attitudes	Mean Response	Category	Mean Response	Category	Grand Mean	Category
Knowledge of and sensitivity toward the history and culture of the language group from which students come*	1.5132	Of extreme importance	1.9329	Of Significant importance	1.721	Of Extreme Importance
Personal identification with the values of the language group from which students come	1.9934	Of significant importance	2.5205	Of significant importance	2.253	Of significant importance

Note: 1-1.8 = of extreme importance; 1.8-2.6 = of significant importance; 2.6-3.4 = important; 3.4-4.2 = of little importance; 4.2-5 = of no importance.

*Indicates a statistically significant difference between the mean responses of bilingual education directors and special education directors.

(Continued)

	Responses					
	Bilingual Ed. Directors		Special Ed. Directors		All Respondents	
Competencies or Attitudes	Mean Response	Category	Mean Response	Category	Grand Mean	Category
The ability to speak the native language of limited-English-proficient pupils*	1.6316	Of extreme importance	2.25	Of significant importance	1.937	Of significant importance
The ability to read and write the native language of limited-English-proficient pupils*	2.0395	Of significant importance	2.5342	Of significant importance	2.282	Of significant importance
Knowledge of the theoretical and practical implications of research dealing with the aquisition of first and second languages*	1.9085	Of significant importance	2.4444	Of significant importance	2.168	Of significant importance
Knowledge of local dialects and how they vary from the standard language*	2.3377	Of significant importance	2.8288	Important	2.579	Of significant importance

*Indicates a statistically significant difference between the mean responses of bilingual education directors and special education directors.

(Continued)

	Responses					
	Bilingual Ed. Directors		Special Ed. Directors		All Respondents	
Competencies or Attitudes	Mean Response	Category	Mean Response	Category	Grand Mean	Category
Knowledge of different cultural perceptions of handicapping conditions*	1.7867	Of extreme importance	2.2177	Of significant importance	2.0	Of significant importance
Knowledge of the relationship between language and culture*	1.9536	Of significant importance	2.2966	Of significant importance	2.122	Of significant importance
Knowledge of the educational implications of social class background and the process of cultural assimilation*	2.06	Of significant importance	2.3014	Of significant importance	2.179	Of significant importance
Knowledge of counseling techniques applicable to limited-English-proficient handicapped children	1.7697	Of extreme importance	2.3219	Of significant importance	2.04	Of significant importance

*Indicates a statistically significant difference between the mean responses of bilingual education directors and special education directors.

(Continued)

	Responses					
	Bilingual Ed. Directors		Special Ed. Directors		All Respondents	
Competencies and Attitudes	Mean Response	Category	Mean Response	Category	Grand Mean	Category
The ability to meet diverse individual pupil needs in group settings	1.7434	Of extreme importance	1.8725	Of significant importance	1.807	Of significant importance
The ability to assess the reading level of bilingual instructional materials	2.0196	Of significant importance	2.1319	Of significant importance	2.074	Of significant importance
The ability to develop individual curricular and instructional plans for limited-English-proficient handicapped children	1.7237	Of extreme importance	1.8219	Of significant importance	1.772	Of extreme importance
Knowledge of tests and techniques for evaluating language dominance and proficiency	1.8816	Of significance importance	1.9799	Of significance importance	1.93	Of significance importance

(Continued)

	Responses					
	Bilingual Ed. Directors		Special Ed. Directors		All Respondents	
Competencies and Attitudes	Mean Response	Category	Mean Response	Category	Grand Mean	Category
Knowledge of tests and techniques for evaluating the mental capabilities of limited-English-proficient pupils	1.7632	Of extreme importance	1.8836	Of significant importance	1.822	Of significant importance
Knowledge of tests and techniques for evaluating the emotional outlook of limited-English-proficient students*	1.8543	Of significant importance	2.1931	Of significant importance	2.02	Of significant importance
Knowledge of general instructional methods applicable to limited-English-proficient handicapped children	1.7417	Of extreme importance	2.0	Of significant importance	1.869	Of significant importance

*Indicates a statistically significant difference between the mean responses of bilingual education directors and special education directors.

(Continued)

	Responses					
	Bilingual Ed. Directors		Special Ed. Directors		All Respondents	
Competencies and Attitudes	Mean Response	Category	Mean Response	Category	Grand Mean	Category
Knowledge of instructional methods for teaching English to limited-English-proficient handicapped children*	1.6424	Of extreme importance	1.8973	Of significant importance	1.768	Of extreme importance
Knowledge of literature and research dealing with the general instructional implications of cross-cultural similarities and differences*	2.2533	Of significant importance	2.6735	Important	2.461	Of significant importance
Knowledge of the legal issues concerning the education of handicapped children	2.1867	Of significant importance	2.1655	Of significant importance	2.176	Of extreme importance
The desire to work with limited-English-proficient handicapped children	1.3907	Of extreme importance	1.6284	Of extreme importance	1.508	Of significant importance

*Indicates a statistically significant difference between the mean responses of bilingual education directors and special education directors.

(Continued)

	Responses					
	Bilingual Ed. Directors		Special Ed. Directors		All Respondents	
Competencies and Attitudes	Mean Response	Category	Mean Response	Category	Grand Mean	Category
Willingness to investigate new approaches for educating limited-English-proficient handicapped children*	1.6867	Of extreme importance	1.9524	Of significant importance	1.818	Of significant importance
Knowledge of bilingual-bicultural curriculum plans and planning options applicable to handicapped children*	1.8224	Of significant importance	2.2308	Of significant importance	2.02	Of significant importance
The capacity to integrate teaching techniques from the fields of bilingual education and special education*	1.6667	Of extreme importance	1.9726	Of significant importance	1.816	Of significant importance

*Indicates a statistically significant difference between the mean responses of bilingual education directors and special education directors.

(Continued)

	Responses					
	Bilingual Ed. Directors		Special Ed. Directors		All Respondents	
Competencies and Attitudes	Mean Response	Category	Mean Response	Category	Grand Mean	Category
The ability to assess and adapt commercially available bilingual education materials to the various needs of handicapped children*	1.9346	Of significant importance	2.2276	Of significant importance	2.077	Of significant importance
Knowledge of techniques for developing materials especially for limited-English-proficient handicapped children	1.9737	Of significant importance	2.0972	Of significant importance	2.034	Of significant importance
Knowledge of methods for dealing effectively with the parents of limited-English-proficient handicapped children*	1.6467	Of extreme importance	1.8904	Of significant importance	1.767	Of extreme importance

*Indicates a statistically significant difference between the mean responses of bilingual education directors and special education directors.

It is also interesting to note that there was a significant difference between the mean responses of the bilingual directors as compared to the special education directors on 15 of the 27 competency items. In general, the bilingual directors rated the importance of utilizing the native language and culture as well as ESL methodology and parental involvement significantly higher than the special education directors.

A recent study (1983) on handicapped migrant students surveyed 163 teachers in the State of New York who work with migrant students who are handicapped in an attempt to identify the competencies necessary to successfully teach these students. A 45-item questionnaire included 45 competencies taken from the special education and bilingual/multicultural education teacher training literature. The results were categorized into these groups. The respondents rate 12 competencies as very important, 31 competencies as important and two competencies as somewhat important. Table 2 presents the findings of this study on the following page.

A careful review of all of the above mentioned competency related studies indicates that there are certain competencies that are repeatedly ranked as very important by multiple sources. In other words there seems to be consensus in the literature that the following are the most important general competencies for bilingual special educators.

1. The desire to work with the CLDE student.
2. The ability of working effectively with parents of CLDE student.
3. The ability to develop appropriate IEP's for the CLDE student.
4. Knowledge and sensitivity toward the language and the culture of the group to be served.
5. The ability to teach ESL to CLDE students.
6. The ability to conduct non-biased assessment with CLDE students.
7. The ability to utilize appropriate methods and materials when working with CLDE students.

Table 2

Means for Migrnat Handicapped Teaching Competencies

Item #	Competency	$\bar{X}$
	Competencies considered very important by respondents	
6	Employs methods for enhancing the self-concept of migrant handicapped students	4.68
31	Establishes a positive social-emotional climate in the classroom	
18	Demonstrates a sensitivity to the language, geographical background, and cultural variations of migrant handicapped students	
15	Develops individualized educational plans for migrant handicapped students	4.38
19	Implements a variety of classroom strategies to manage the behavior of migrant handicapped students	4.36
5	Trains parents to work more effectively with their own migrant handicapped children	4.28
36	Demonstrates a knowledge of instructional materials used in teaching migrant handicapped students	4.26
27	Organizes the classroom environment in order to maximize learning including considerations for scheduling, seating arrangements, presentation of materials, and setting limits	4.23
11	Is aware of community agencies that provide services to migrant handicapped students and their families	4.16
28	Maintains records of the performance of migrant handicapped students	4.12
7	Organizes, implements and evaluates an instructional program in all areas of instruction	4.08
35	Develops and maintains interpersonal communication skills with other professionals	4.03

Table 2

Means for Migrant Handicapped Teaching Competencies

Item #	Competency	$\overline{X}$
	Competencies considered important by respondents	
2	Describes the developmental sequence in all areas of instruction	3.96
43	Understands the concept of nondiscriminatory testing and its effects on migrant handicapped students	3.85
42	Demonstrates a knowledge of migrant individuals' lifestyles	3.82
16	Understands the school code and laws whose provisions are essential to the rights and responsibilities of migrant students	3.82
12	Constructs and develops teacher-made materials for use with migrant handicapped students	3.82
22	Is aware of the professional resources and organizations providing assistance and services to teachers of the migrant handicapped	3.81
21	Plans and implements an instructional program that specifies instructional goals, behavioral objectives, instructional sequence, learning activities, materials, and evaluation tools	3.80
45	Facilitates the transfer of the records of migrant handicapped students	3.80
34	Promotes the mainstreaming of migrant handicapped students with nonhandicapped students	3.80
3	Understands the legal, medical and education definitions relative to exceptional persons	3.77
14	Provides consulting and supporting services to other professionals working with migrant handicapped students	3.77
30	Uses specific methods of working with migrant handicapped students in the classroom	3.76

Table 2

Means for Migrant Handicapped Teaching Competencies

Item #	Competency	$\bar{X}$
	Competencies considered important by respondents	
37	Can explain to parents the school code and laws whose provisions are essential to the rights and responsibilities of migrant handicapped students and their families	3.71
26	Uses methods for dealing with the migrant handicapped student's family needs	3.71
24	Employs methods of developing and maintaining the migrant handicapped student's cultural identity	3.70
33	Assists parents and families in dealing with the medical health and dental needs of migrant handicapped students	3.70
4	Can make other nonhandicapped students aware of the needs of migrant handicapped students	3.65
8	Understands the causes of the different exceptionalities	3.64
25	Understands the methods for identifying and classifying migrant handicapped students	3.64
23	Familiarizes other professionals with the needs of migrant handicapped students	3.63
10	Administers, scores and interprets the relevance of the findings of selected educational diagnostic and achievement tests	3.61
40	Uses a variety of audiovisual instructional media in teaching migrant handicapped students	3.55
29	Performs task analysis	3.47
17	Evaluates commercially available programs and materials developed for use with migrant handicapped students	3.46
13	Can specify the characteristics of the different exceptionalities	3.41

Table 2

Means for Migrant Handicapped Teaching Competencies

Item #	Competency	$\overline{X}$
	Competencies considered important by respondents	
1	Demonstrates a knowledge of the Migrant Student Record Transfer System (MSRTS) for planning and implementing an educational program for migrant handicapped students	3.41
38	Demonstrates proficiency in the native language of the migrant handicapped student	3.40
32	Understands the legislation and litigation which has significantly affected the handicapped	3.29
41	Performs as a member of a child study team in determining the needs of migrant handicapped students	3.29
9	Understands the current research related to migrant handicapped students	3.20
39	Defines and discusses major issues in special education (e.g., mainstreaming, labeling)	3.17
	Competencies considered somewhat important by respondents	
44	Conducts research relating to migrant handicapped students	2.44
20	Understands the historical aspects of special education	2.41

The most detailed and specific set of competencies that have been developed are compatible with the most frequently cited generic competencies listed above. These very specific competencies were prepared by an expert panel of bilingual special education teacher trainers convened by the Association for Cross-Cultural Education and Social Studies (ACCESS) (Pynn 1981). These competencies are as follows:

I. Instruction/Curriculum

   A. The trainee is knowledgeable of general cultural characteristics:

      1. Lifestyles of ethnic minority populations, family structure, and community support systems.

      2. Attitudes and behaviors of cultural and socio-economic groups.

   B. The trainee understands the relevance of child rearing practices of ethnic minority families to the CLDE child's cognitive, emotional, and social development.

   C. The trainee is aware of cultural conflicts resulting from ethnic minority differences that may affect the CLDE child's self-image and thus influence his/her emotional and social development.

   D. The trainee institutes a teaching process that takes into account the impact of cultural conflicts on the CLDE child's academic performance.

   E. The trainee understands the acculturation process of culturally diverse individuals into the mainstream of American society.

   F. The trainee implements techniques to facilitate the integration of the CLDE child into American schools and society.

   G. The trainee develops and implements appropriate educational programs to meet the special needs of CLDE children.

   H. The trainee develops and implements appropriate educational programs to meet the special needs of CLDE children.

   I. The trainee develops educational programs designed to improve the bilingual development of learning disabled children which reflect an understanding of current approaches in the field.

   J. The trainee plans, designs, and implements special education programs for CLDE populations in accordance with legislative requirements and guidelines.

K. The trainee will plan, design, and implement individualized education programs which include, where appropriate, such subject areas as: language arts, arithmetic, science, social studies, vocational skills, and physical education.

L. The trainee develops and applies appropriate educational methods based, in part, upon diagnostic results.

M. The trainee demonstrates skill in developing and/or adapting educational materials and procedures to meet individual needs.

N. The trainee works in cooperation with other education professionals to design a full service educational program appropriate to the needs of students exhibiting specific handicaps, gifts, or talents.

O. The trainee designs curriculum and instructional programs that are based on behavioral objectives considering cultural variables.

P. The trainee directs and organizes program activities in cooperation with parents, teachers, and other school personnel.

Q. The trainee determines the appropriate instructional setting to maximize the educational development of the CLDE child.

II. Assessment and Evaluation

A. The trainee recognizes normal language development patterns.

B. The trainee is knowledgeable of major empirical research in the area of speech and language acquisition.

C. The trainee explains the effects of anatomic, physiologic, linguistic, psycholinguistic, and sociolinguistic factors on the communication process.

D. The trainee differentiates between those difficulties arising from second language acquisition and those from speech and language disability:

1. Trainee distinguishes between culturally derived linguistic conventions and deviant language development problems.
2. Trainee understands the nature, etiologies, and remedial techniques associated with language disorders.

E. The trainee writes descriptive reports which accurately reflect the nature of communicative disorders.

F. The trainee demonstrates the ability to assess student strengths and needs within the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domains through the use of appropriate formal and informal instruments and procedures (e.g., standardized tests, commerically prepared informal tests, teacher-prepared measures, and criterion-referenced measures).

G. The trainee is aware of the uses and limitations of current standard assessment techniques in regard to CLDE populations.

H. The trainee develops an assessment model based on information gained from several sources. For example:

  1. Annecdotal records and pupil behavior scales.

  2. Observations and recommendations from parents, teachers, and other school personnel.

I. The trainee is able to assess those factors limiting the participation of the family in the school setting and set specific goals.

J. The trainee formulates an accurate description of student ability based upon observation of academic performance in light of the CLDE student's cultural background.

K. The trainee is aware of the influence of learning styles, cultural values, and language patterns of ethnic and minority groups on classroom and test performance.

L. The trainee administers appropriate language assessment instruments and accurately interprets the skills measured and the information obtained.

M. The trainee uses the information gained to determine the CLDE student's most appropriate and least restrictive educational setting.

N. The trainee utilizes a cognitive style analysis approach as a diagnostic-prescriptive tool.

O. The trainee will write a diagnostic evaluation in behavioral terms.

P. The trainee will analyze skills and educational materials through the task analysis approach to determine program effectiveness.

Q. The trainee develops and applies appropriate educational methods based, in part, upon diagnostic results.

R. The trainee determines the appropriate instructional strategies used in diagnostic-prescriptive teaching of the CLDE child.

S. The trainee develops techniques to improve communication competence within the classroom:

  1. Trainee understands the function of language in the classroom as it relates to educational development.

  2. Trainee develops alternative techniques to improve specific speech and language skills of CLDE children.

T. The trainee implements the appropriate strategies for the diagnostic-prescriptive teaching of CLDE children.

U. The trainee reviews the effectiveness of instructional methods implemented within the special education program for CLDE children.

V. The trainee evaluates, using appropriate measurement devices, the effectiveness of diagnostic programs for CLDE individuals.

  1. Trainee examines materials, academic tasks, and methodologies using a task analysis approach.

  2. Trainee examines the contributions of other resources (e.g., parent, teachers, and other school personnel).

W. The trainee evaluates the impact of prescribed treatments by means of initial and continuing and an analysis of changes in academic and personal growth: e.g., trainee utilizes such data collecting devices as questionnaires, rating scales, and checklists.

X. The trainee modifies objectives and learning approaches, provided such changes are indicated by the on-going evaluation of educational plans.

III. Classroom Management

A. The trainee is aware of how non-verbal behaviors of both CLDE children and non-ethnic teachers may lead to miscommunication between children and teachers.

B. The trainee understands and applies interaction and management strategies (e.g., behavior modification, group dynamics, interaction analysis behavior therapy, and life space management therapy) in light of cultural, socio-economic, and language factors influencing behavior.

C. The trainee develops and applies appropriate educational methods based, in part, upon diagnostic results.

D. The trainee demonstrates a thorough knowledge of critical issues relative to effective classroom management. The following issues are suggested:

  1. Effective teaching methodologies.

  2. Modeling of appropriate/desirable behaviors.

  3. Self-realization and values clarification.

  4. Understanding of and sensitivity to physical, social, developmental, and cultural factors.

  5. Emotional climate in the learning environment.

6. Teacher flexibility as demonstrated through the use of alternative activity suggestions, willingness to give explanations and reasons, and the encouragement of student input.

E. The trainee examines behavior management models or approaches and selects those appropriate to individual needs.

F. The trainee implements educational management strategies, such as: learning centers, material coding, student self-directed activities, and continuous-progress management.

G. The trainee examines educational management systems with respect to:

1. Own cultural perspective.

2. Perspective of the CLDE child

3. Potential biases (e.g., ethnic, class cultural, and/or linguistic).

4. Potential discriminatory effects of utilizing a specific behavior and classroom management model.

H. The trainee extends the behavioral management program through collaborative efforts with the home, community agencies, and state and federal agencies.

IV. Counseling

A. The trainee assists parents in identifying their CLDE child's learning difficulties.

B. The trainee, with the support of parents and teachers, develops goals and objectives and prescribes special programs to meet individual needs.

C. The trainee provides parents with information on available community resources.

D. The trainee extends the behavioral management program through collaborative efforts with the home, community agencies, and state and federal agencies.

E. The trainee gathers pertinent information and provides training to the CLDE child's family, teachers, other professionals, and national, state, and local groups: e.g., trainee develops a system for on-going technical and professional support to ancillary educational personnel.

F. The trainee assists families and their CLDE children in understanding and dealing with the attitudes, lifestyles, behaviors, and educational philosophy of American society and its schools.

V. Advocacy/Public Relations

A. The trainee understands the historical development of and legal basis for bilingual and special education. The trainee, for example, has knowledge and understanding of the following:

1. Public Law 94-142.

2. Rehabilitation Act of 1973, Section 504.

3. Title VII legislation.

Lau v. Nichols case and other pertinent legislation.

B. The trainee explains significant implications of special education regulations to students, parents, educators, and others.

C. The trainee explains the legal implications of significant court decisions on policy development and legislative reform to students, parents, educators, and others.

D. The trainee gathers pertinent information and provides training to the CLDE child's family, teachers, other professionals, and national, state, and local groups: e.g., trainee develops a system for on-going technical and professional support to ancillary educational personnel.

E. The trainee makes suggestions to school personnel and local education agencies for implementing appropriate instructional programs which are sensitive to the needs of the CLDE child.

F. The trainee provides parents with information on available community resources.

VI. Research

A. The trainee understands all aspects of teaching CLDE children, including the recent research, etiology, content areas, educational procedures, and support systems necessary for effective educational management.

B. The trainee demonstrates knowledge of significant theory and research applications relative to teaching CLDE children by developing and implementing clinical/prescriptive.

Characteristics of Current Training Programs

A study conducted by the Multicultural Special Education Project (MUSEP) in 1982 collected data from 30 bilingual and/or multicultural special education teacher training projects at the university level. These projects were all located in the Western region of the United States and were funded through the Division of Personnel Preparation, Office of Special Education, U.S. Department of Education. The return rate (seven projects) was 23% (about average) and adequately represented the broad range of projects. This data provides a representative profile of bilingual special education projects in the Western region. Based on the responses to the questionnaire, each project was identified as belonging in one of three general categories:

a) A strictly traditional special education program with recruitment of ethnic or bilingual students. For example, a program that trains regular learning disability teachers but attempts to recruit minority and bilingual students;

b) A traditional special education program with bilingual special education curriculum infused into existing coursework and program requirements. This type of program, for example, would add a few lectures or modules and bibliographies on bilingual special education to existing courses;

c) A bilingual special education program that is specifically designed to train bilingual special education teachers and includes bilingual special education course work and field experiences with bilingual special education curriculum.

Analysis of the data indicates that 29% were strictly traditional special education programs that recruited minority students at most, 29% were traditional special education programs with bilingual special education infused into existing curricula and 43% were bilingual special education programs that offered specific courses in bilingual special education and considered their program a bilingual special education program.

The following table summarizes the information on program types and shows the number of graduates for each of the programs.

Table 3

Program Types and Their Respective Graduates

Projects	Strictly Traditional Special Ed. Program With Recruitment of Ethnic Students	Traditional Special Ed. With Bil. Special Ed. Infused Info. Existing Courses	Bilingual Special Education Program	Number of Students Graduated		
				B.A.	M.A.	Ph.D.
1			X	5	-	-
2		X		5	1	-
3		X		2	-	2
4	X			15	1	55
5	X			20	5	25
6			X	6	-	-
7			X	-	-	-
Total %	29%	29%	43%			

Traditional special education programs graduated the most students in each of the three training levels (BA-35, MA-6, PhD-84), followed by infused traditional special education programs (BA-7, MA-1, PhD-2). The low number of graduates from bilingual special education programs (BA-11) is indicative of the relatively recent emergence of the field. More importantly, it points to the need for continued support of this specialized field. In terms of the degree of interdisciplinary emphasis in the curriculum, 86% of the students in all projects sampled were exposed to some ethnic language component (e.g., Spanish, Navajo, etc.); 71% were exposed to cultural sensitivity or awareness coursework (e.g., Asian or Chicano Studies); 57% were exposed to specific bilingual special education methodology; and 43% had interdisciplinary exchange with bilingual education.

It was stated that there is a general trend toward deemphasis of education by state and federal funding agencies. Without adequate resources it is very difficult to recruit students. It also appears that some faculty consider it necessary to deemphasize entrance standards and stress exit criteria in order to recruit and retain students. The problem is compounded because of the small pool of high school graduates from which to draw.

Public school support for bilingual special education programs is also a problem. Many indicated that public schools in some areas do not support bilingual special education efforts by higher education institutions. Nonetheless, the public schools lack trained professionals in bilingual special education. University training programs need to be strengthened in order to attract students and help relieve this shortage of personnel. There is also a critical need to infuse teacher training programs with a bilingual special education content. This also involves increasing faculty awareness and support. Clarifying the interface between bilingual education and special education is a high priority.

In the area of research basic knowledge is needed about target populations, e.g., American Indians, Hispanics and Asians. Specifically, more information is needed about their culture, language and cognitive development. It was agreed that more knowledge is needed concerning what constitutes a positive learning atmosphere for children being served through bilingual special education. Research is needed on effective teacher training models for bilingual special education.

In the area of program development it was emphasized that there should be a coordinated effort on the part of bilingual special education training programs and school districts to communicate with state personnel, to make known the needs of bilingual special education in the schools. This should encourage institutionalization and help secure funding at both levels. In order to achieve meaningful local control, it was stressed that IHE's, school boards, school administrators, teachers, bilingual teachers, bilingual special education teachers, parents and the general public all need to be sensitized to the issue and need for bilingual special education programs that reflect local needs.

Bilingual special education teacher trainers need to be knowledgeable of bilingual/bicultural and special education, in addition to being versed in bilingual special education per se. For example, teacher trainers should be "equipped" to utilize culturally and linguistically appropriate special education assessment procedures with non-English speaking culturally and linguistically different exceptional students (CLDES). It is extremely important that bilingual special education trainers and programs maintain and increase communication among themselves. Communication will enhance camaraderie, program support, avoid duplication of mistakes and efforts in research, and will keep morale up in these times of scarce resources.

The existing heterogeneity among bilingual special education projects is an asset that can aid us in our search for successful project components. Recognized is the fact that these evaluations will not turn up an ideal project that will be suited for all regions and ethnic groups.

Finally, it was stressed that there is a need to begin to make specific efforts to institutionalize projects that are dependent on grants, i.e., soft monies. In order to do this, four things should be done: cause awareness, acceptance, participation, and demonstrate effectiveness and need of bilingual special education projects.

Additional data on these teacher training projects was acquired through site visits to the projects as well as through personal communication. The following table summarizes the major concerns and the recurring needs expressed by the project directors.

As can be seen on Table 3, the most common concern among all projects was the institutionalization of their training programs. Fifty-nine percent of the projects expressed some concern that they would cease to exist unless adopted by their institutions and departments and made permanent programs.

Table 3

Need and Concerns Generated From Site Visits

(59%)*	1.	Program institutionalization.
(49%)	2.	Student recruitment and support (e.g., tutoring).
(35%)	3.	Program support and cooperation with departments, programs and agencies (e.g., state departments, LEA's, school districts, and communities).
(24%)	4.	Program planning and development.
(24%)	5.	Infusion of bilingual special education curricula into existing courses.
(18%)	6.	Faculty and teacher inservice training: models and content.
(18%)	7.	Research and development of reliable and valid diagnostic instruments in bilingual special education.
(18%)	8.	Method and curricula identification, dissemination and development appropriate for bilingual special education.
(12%)	9.	Basic research emphasis.

*Many institutions had more than one concern

A second most recurrent concern among the seventeen projects was student recruitment and support. Forty-nine percent of the projects felt there was not enough minority students in their programs and had problems recruiting them. Moreover, some projects felt a need to provide academic and general support to the few minorities that are already in the programs.

Table 3 indicates 35 percent of the projects felt they needed the support and cooperation of academic and non-academic departments, programs, and agencies, such as special education departments, state departments, LEA's, school districts, and community groups. Twenty-four percent felt bilingual special education programs needed better planning and development. Another 24 percent of the project felt a need of infusing bilingual special education curricula into existing courses of existing and institutionalized training programs, such as special and bilingual education programs.

Eighteen percent felt models and content of in-service training for faculty and teachers is important and in need of development. Yet another 18 percent felt there is a need in bilingual special education to research and develop reliable and valid diagnostic instruments that are sensitive to culturally and linguistically different populations. Still another 18 percent of the projects felt a need to identify, disseminate and develop teaching methods and curricula that is appropriate for teachers to use in the area of bilingual special education. Finally, 12 percent of the projects felt the area of bilingual special education needs to be involved and serve as a catalyst for basic empirical research.

Program Planning and Institutionalization

To "institutionalize" a newly established or non-traditional program like bilingual special education in higher education, means to make it a regular part of the program offerings of a college or university. As every experienced person knows, the institutionalization process is never automatic. To accomplish it, a strategy or plan of action, frequently extending over several years, is required. If a strategy is to have reasonable probablity of success, careful attention must be given in it to meeting five conditions. If these conditions are not met, the probablity of a successful plan is substantially reduced. These conditions are described below from the viewpoint of the person interested in institutionalizing a program.

Develop Central Office Administrative Support

Key features of central offices are that they serve as communication centers and as the locus of control of dollar and personnel resources. These resources tend to flow along the lines of communication. For this reason, the director of a non-traditional program needs to have numerous interactions with the head of his or her unit. These meetings should be open to any topic related to the new program, including personnel matters, political issues, students support, long-term directions, publications, needed contracts, whether or not to pursue grant opportunities, presentations at national meetings, and the financial condition of the department and school. Such interactions have two important outcomes. First, each person leaves the meeting with a good sense of what is happening in the other person's domain. Second, incipient problems are dealt with before they occur, thus leading to better management.

Pay Attention to Political Circumstances

Many programs, especially those involving bilingualism and ethnic groups, are very sensitive to shifts in viewpoint or power within the university, the state or nation. For this reason, keeping one's political support in repair is an important aspect of institutionalizing a program. Three types of support are significant here: 1) grass roots, including parents, teachers, and school administrators; 2) power block, including subgroups of legislators or congresspersons, and the support of state or federal agencies; and 3) support from other disciplines. These three groups must be kept well informed. In a university, the good will of other departments is critically important to survival and success. In the bilingual/multicultural special education area, forming solid relationships with foreign language departments, linguistics, socio-linguistics, anthropology, and speech science permit them to know what one is doing, what his or her concerns and goals are, and prevents feelings of suspicion and interdepartmental hostility frequently found in colleges and universities when non-traditional programs arise.

The art of politics is finding a common value among groups such those mentioned above. It is not always easy to do so since each political group is likely to form a set of values different from the other. That, one supposes, is what a "political group" means. To find a common value means that one must spend sufficient time with each type of group to be able to form several ideas about where the common ground among them might lie should political action be required. While time consuming, the task of finding a common value is frequently a critical one for the director and staff of a non-traditional program like bilingual special education.

Find or Develop a Niche for the Program and Its Faculty

To feel secure in an organization, most persons need to have a home base or a special niche in the organization from which they can carry on their activities. The same seems to be true of programs. To develop a niche for a non-traditional program and its faculty is one of the most difficult tasks in institutionalization. To gain a niche, several important events need to occur between the central office, the appropriate academic unit and the program.

The first is the establishment of an academically sound and supportive academic base in an appropriate academic department or division. Not only must there be a good academic fit between the program and the department but there should be faculty support for the program from colleagues within the department. The second is identifying a carefully located space which is the visible office of the program, as space is the symbol of institutionalization. Third, is developing program uniqueness. These issues are raised by a traditional program currently facing phase-out. One of its major problems is that the content of the program has, over the years, begun to appear in other programs, thus gradually reducing the uniqueness of the original program. People have asked, "What does this program do that is not done in other programs?" If this question is difficult to answer, a program either has never gained a niche or is in danger of losing the one formerly occupied.

Consolidate Resources and Monitor Their Status Often

All college and university programs need three types of resources: faculty, students, and money. To consolidate faculty resources means the faculty members involved in the program identify with it and are reliable in the sense that they will expend effort to improve the program rather than directing their attention elsewhere. To consolidate faculty resources requires the systemmatic application of leadership skills by the program director so that the faculty involved believe that their work is important, that it will be rewarded, and that the program has direction and social value.

The consolidation of student resources represents one of the most difficult problems of non-traditional programs. A key factor is the durability of federally sponsored programs for Hispanic and Native American peoples, for example, is that many of the funds are directly devoted to student support. By the very nature of being economically disadvantaged, persons in these gropus cannot easily opt for higher education since doing so intrinsically involves foregoing the money that would be gained from full-time employment while at the same time having to pay for more schooling. A subsidy, typically from federal sources, is, therefore, required if programs for these people are to have students. A withdrawal of this subsidy predicts program failure by dint of insufficient students from the target populations. Maintenance of direct federal or state subsidies for students is, therefore, a central reason for the development and maintenance of majority-minority political ties by minority group members. The major alternative to direct subsidies is the adaptation of non-traditional programs to the circumstances of its target population of students. This adaptation usually means a part-time program in which students can enroll during the evening and may include the use of teleconference instruction in which courses or workshops are delivered to remote areas at time convenient for students.

The consolidation of financial resources usually requires two moves. First, be certain a significant portion of the program faculty are on "hard" rather than "soft" money. Faculty on hard money is usually taken as a significant sign of successful institutionalization. Second, regular ways of raising money by grants, gifts, consulting, or contracts should be planned by the program faculty. Such funds frequently make the difference between a quality program and one chronically on the brink of financial disaster.

Build a Sound Program

The first step in building a sound program is to avoid slipshod admission practices. A program is known by the quality of its graduates. If one admits slow students on the one hand or purely opportunistic ones on the other, it will become suspect both inside and outside the college or university. Placement will become difficult. The second step is to build a rational curriculum. Such a curriculum has two important features: a) it can be described and explained in the sense that the faculty can show how the curriculum is related to the goals and objectives of the program, and b) the curriculum actually produces a reasonable level of the skills, knowledges, and intellectual strategies which the program claims that it produces. The third step is to bridge the special program to the regular faculty and curriculum by formal as well as informal mechanisms. The curriculum should not be too highly specialized and with anchors in both special and bilingual education. The fourth step, is to hold an experimental and evaluative posture toward the curriculum. Every program can be designed better than it is. An experimental posture means that one forms hypotheses about changes that will improve the program, and carries them out. An evaluative posture means that the effects of these changes are carefully appraised to make certain there actually are improvements in the program. A systems approach to program evaluation is recommended.

As the five conditions described above suggest, institutionalizing a program is neither an easy nor a certain process. Creating a strategy or action plan substantially increases the probability of success, while not doing so leaves one's chances to luck.

Model Training Programs

There are two general approaches that can be utilized in addressing the need to prepare bilingual special education teachers. Existing teacher training faculty and programs in special education and bilingual education can consolidate their resources and service their programs to focus on the unique needs of exceptional bilingual students. This is currently being done by several universities throughout the country as was mentioned earlier in the paper. Another approach is to focus attention on the training of the trainers themselves. At the preservice doctoral level, there are a few universities that are working with doctoral students on an ad hoc basis. These programs utilize existing doctoral training programs in special education and add an emphasis in bilingual special education through independent studies, specialized seminars, internships and related research projects. Among the universities involved in this type of leadership training are: The University of Arizona, Arizona State University, San Diego State University, The University of Colorado, The University of New Mexico, New Mexico State University, The University of Massachusetts, Boston University, New York University, and New York State University.

In addition to the above mentioned preservice training for faculty, Landurand (1982) has developed a very successful inservice training model for college and university faculty in the area of bilingual special education. Through a U.S.D.E. special education dean's grant, Landurand has established the Multicultural Institute for Change at Regis College in Weston, Massachusetts. The Institute's primary goal is to improve the quality of service to linguistically and culturally different children. Currently, the Institute is training sixteen faculty from six nearby colleges and universities in the theory and practical application of bilingual special education. The following program description is taken from a publication of the Multicultural Institute for Change (Landurand 1982).

The instructional program in the Institute for Change consists of four major components: theoretical modular training, a local educational agency, practicum experience, a college practicum experience, and an integrative seminar. For each of the three years, the faculty trainees complete three modules, the correlated local school or agency practica, the college practicum, and the integrative seminar. Prior to initiating any of the components, each faculty trainee with the assistance of the project staff undergoes a diagnostic prescriptive assessment. Each trainee analyzes his/her particular areas of expertise, background in bilingual/bicultural issues and favored learning style. In addition, for each of the tasks specified in the college component, the trainee evaluates what he/she has done in that area and develops objectives from a multicultural perspective for self improvement for achieving that goal. Once these assessments are completed, each trainee, with the help of the Project Director and part-time staff, develops an individual training plan (ITP) to accomplish each of the components developed in the Institute for Change. Techniques such as individual and school case studies, role playing, group problem solving and onsite local school, agency and college practicum are utilized in training.

At the end of the three year project, the Regis College Institute for Change will provide insights as to the strategies necessary for successful training of faculty members in the content of bilingual/bicultural special education. To date, the Institute staff can suggest to other institutions who may consider such training the following:

1) Involve the Administrative Staff from the beginning of the project. Without the support of the Deans, the Institute for Change would not be able to expect high levels of commitment from faculty.

2) Offer training sessions that do not conflict with faculty members' busy schedules. In most cases, "retreats" provide faculty with the opportunity to concentrate on the issues and skills relative to bilingual/bicultural special education.

3) Provide experiences in the public schools and community in order to update faculty's perceptions of the needs of linguistic minorities in the local educational agencies.

4) Be prepared to deal with attitudes faculty may bring to the training that reflect their perceptions of individuals from culturally different backgrounds. Staff members and consultants should have skills in groups process, especially as these skills relate to racism and biases that faculty may consciously or unconsciously possess.

5) Provide ongoing follow-up with faculty and administrative staff. Because faculty have many responsibilities, their completion of ITPs may be difficult without the constant support of the project's staff and consultants.

Because of the immediate need to train bilingual special education teachers the above mentioned model is highly recommended both as a short term strategy as well as a strategy for colleges and universities who wish to retrain existing faculty.

Another significant and model inservice training program has been undertaken by the American Speech, Language, and Hearing Association (ASHA). This project is also funded by the Office of Special Education of the U.S. Department of Education. The project is known as the Bilingual Language Learning System (BLLS). The description of the program which follows was adapted from the project summary disseminated by ASHA.

Bilingual Language Learning System (BLLS)

The Bilingual Language Learning System (BLLS) project has been designed as a national coordinated effort to meet this need and to improve the availability and quality of speech-language pathology and audiology services rendered to bilingual/bicultural Spanish-English children. Funded August 1, 1981, by Special Education Programs, United States Department of Education, the BLLS project is intended to provide a series of two-day in-service training institutes and a training manual which discuss characteristics of Spanish and English language acquisition; how speech-language pathologists and audiologists may provide appropriate evaluation of Spanish-English children with suspected communication handicap; how effective management strategies can be implemented for those children with confirmed language disorders; and how interaction of speech-language pathologists and audiologists with other school professionals can be promoted in order to increase the effectiveness of educational programming for this population.

During the course of the project, a model of training will be employed in which bilingual/bicultural speech-language pathologists will be trained to train other professionals. In addition, representatives of university/college training programs in speech-language pathology and audiology will be trained so that content of BLLS Institutes can be incorporated into university/college program curricula. State schools consultants will also be trained so that these resource persons can disseminate information on the BLSS Institutes and effect improved education for Spanish-English children. The Trainers, university/college representatives and schools consultants have been selected for the eight states which, collectively, account for nearly 90% of the Spanish-language population in the United States (Arizona, California, Colorado, Florida, Illinois, New Mexico, New York, and Texas). These individuals compose BLLS State Resource Teams in the eight target states.

During the first year of the project (August 1981 through May 1982), the BLLS training manual was developed and the State Resource Team members were selected. During the second year of the project (June 1982 through May 1983), the Trainers will conduct a series of fourteen BLLS Institutes for Hispanic bilingual and bicultural speech-language pathologists, audiologists and other Hispanic professionals who work in teams with speech-language pathologists and audiologists, and will select a second group of Trainers for the project. During the third year of the project (June 1983 through May 1984), this second group will be trained as Trainers and will conduct a series of twenty-two BLLS Institutes for monolingual professionals. Training for bilingual/bicultural speech-language pathologists and audiologists will be distinct from training for monolingual individuals because the professional needs of the two groups are different.

The Institutes will serve as a tool to:

- disseminate state-of-the-art information regarding bilingual communication assessment and treatment to professionals working with Spanish-English children;
- provide opportunities for Trainers to develop their skills in presenting the curriculum content; and
- field test the original curriculum content such that necessary revision, based on evaluation by Institute participants, can be made.

As a result of BLLS training, it is anticipated that more speech-language pathologists and audiologists will provide improved services to bilingual/

bicultural communicatively handicapped children. Greater consultative services will then be available to special and regular educators, and these professionals will better understand contributions that communication disorders specialists can provide. For additional information the BLLS curriculum outline has been included in the appendix.

Other Model Training Programs

There are a number of additional training programs that should also be maintained in this state-of-the-art paper. Because of space limitations, however, descritpions of these programs will be included in the appendix rather than in the text of the paper.

Recommendations

1. Preservice training projects in bilingual special education should be given increased support from the local, state and federal level.
2. Colleges and universities should cooperate with local school districts in conducting a planned and systemmatic inservice program in bilingual special education.
3. Leadership training in bilingual special education at the doctoral level should receive increased support from the U.S. Department of Education.
4. All types and levels of bilingual special education training should include a strong emphasis on parental involvement and parent training.
5. Bilingual special education teacher training curriculum should be highly interdisciplinary in orientation drawing not only from special education and bilingual education but from psychology, anthropology, linguistics, psycholinguistics, language departments, etc.
6. Bilingual special education teacher competencies identified as critical by practitioners should be validated empirically before being utilized to design future training programs.
7. Bilingual special education teacher training research should be conducted with particular emphasis given to student outcomes as the ultimate measure of success.
8. Teacher training materials and text books as well as bibliographies should be developed for the field of bilingual special education.
9. Training programs should make special provisions for student recruitment and retention. Stipends, tuition and books allowance, and additional support systems should also be provided.

10. Bilingual special education and ESL methods courses should be unique and different for this population of exceptional bilingual students.

11. The issue of dual (special education and bilingual education) endorsement and certification as well as bilingual special education endorsement and certification needs further study.

12. The training of regular education teachers through infusion regarding the needs of the bilingual exceptional child is a priority.

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APPENDIX

The Houston Model

The foregoing ideal program does not yet exist in an applied bilingual special education situation. However, there are a few existing programs that come close to this ideal and include many of the program elements recommended above. One such program is the Coordinated Services for Handicapped Limited English Proficient (LEP) Students Program (CSHLS) of the Houston Independent School District. This program will be described in detail as a model approximating our recommended program and as an example of how the ideal program may be applied in actual practice.

The CSHLS program's stated goal sets the essential tone of the program:

> "It is the goal of this model to provide bilingual and special education teachers with the competencies required to effectively coordinate services. Jointly they will provide an instructional program that meets the unique and individual needs of handicapped LEP students."
> (Bolander, Lamb and Ramirez, 1981)

The key word is coordination. CSHLS pulls together the skills, strengths, knowledge, and resources of both bilingual and special education staff members to most effectively meet the individual needs of the bilingual special education student.

The content and techniques used in the CSHLS program are primarily related to Hispanic students, these constituting the majority of the CSHLS students. However, this program and its approaches are consistent with the needs of bilingual and special education teachers of exceptional limited English proficient students of any cultural background. The training and coordination guidelines will serve the needs of teachers of any diverse multicultural group of exceptional children.

The needs of bilingual and special education teachers working with exceptional culturally diverse students are several:

1. Knowledge about and skills to deal with first and second language acquisition;
2. Methodology for implementing instruction through various specific learning modalities (reflecting the learning styles discussed in Chapter 12);
3. Teaching techniques for individualized and special needs instruction;
4. Teaching strategies for various exceptionalities (as discussed in Chapter 14); and
5. Skills for coordinating, planning and instruction.

Specifically, the bilingual teacher must develop skills to meet the needs of LEP students, related to their exceptionality, and the special education teacher must develop skills to meet the needs of exceptional LEP students, related to their language and culture. CSHLS addresses these needs directly in their in-service training modules and resource materials manual, made available to all participating teachers.

Module I of the CSHLA In-service component deals with Language and Culture. The purpose of the training is to provide participating teachers with:

1. An overview of student language assessment;
2. Ability to differentiate between first language acquistion, second language learning, and implications for teaching a second language; and
3. An awareness of cultural differences (Bolander, Lamb, and Ramirez, 1981).

An example of the concise and informative format of the CSHLA Module I, Language and Culture, and its direct service/classroom application is illustrated in the following excerpt:

First Language Acquisition	Second Language Learning	Implications for Teaching Second Language	Activities for Second Language Learning
1. The first language learner has had extensive exposure to the first language before he is required to produce language. Therefore, he has had time to build strong receptive language skills.	1. The second language learner usually has had limited exposure to the second language when language demands are made of him. Therefore, he usually has limited receptive language skills in the second language.	1. Emphasize listening with understanding before making oral language demands of the learner.	1. The following activity may help you when teaching a LEP handicapped student. The emphasis will be placed in listening skills with comprehension before placing any oral language demands of the learner. Give verbal commands to the student: A. Go the door B. Go to my desk and get me the red pencil C. Take out your book, etc. It is suggested that one command is given at a time with the article, after which you may add more articles with the same command. Some other useful ideas are: using greetings (polite greetings, familiar greetings), farewells, names and getting acquainted. Some reference materials to assist with these ideas are: The Vocabulary Builder, Bienvenidos, etc.; these and other reference materials are available at the Northline Bilingual Resource Center.
2. The first language learner spends all of his waking hours learning his language.	2. Many second language learners spend a limited number of hours learning the second language.	2. Create as intensive an English speaking environment as possible. Provide many practice activities in a variety of situations.	2. The following activity will be helpful to create as intensive an English-speaking environment as possible. Simulate activities by using dialogues or role playing of visits to a doctor's office, ordering a meal at a restaurant, going to the supermarket, going to the movies, etc. Useful reference materials are the ESL (English as a Second Language) Curriculum Guides, Part 1 and Part 2, which can be ordered through the HISD Warehouse.
3. The first language learner usually has most of his oral language development completed before being exposed to written language.	3. The second language learner who begins second language learning when he enters school usually has to handle oral language and written language at the same time.	3. Introduce reading and writing skills only after the learner has developed understanding in the second language.	3. The following explanation will give you suggestions on how to introduce reading and writing skills once you have determined the level of understanding of the learner in the second language. Show pictures to the students and ask them to tell you a story about them. Write the story or stories on the board. Have the children read the story or stories out loud. Once the child has been given a topic, the student may write a paragraph or a complete story. This paragraph or story may be used to develop activities that will give you feedback on the student's comprehension.
4. The first language learner is highly motivated and has many language models to follow in the home setting.	4. The second language learner may not be as highly motivated and usually has few, if any, second language models in the home setting.	4. Provide learners with a good language model and opportunities for meaningful practice.	4. Notice that when reading Implication for Teaching Second Language No. 2, some of the suggested activities can serve as opportunities for meaningful practice when learners are provided with a good language model such as teacher giving directions; another student serving as a model in areas that he/she has mastered; materials such as the ROCK Kit can be used or the Idea Kit, or the Sesame programs, Villa Alegre, etc.

First Language Acquisition	Second Language Learning	Implications for Teaching Second Language	Activities for Second Language Learning
5. He learns language through natural communications with family and community members in everyday situation.	5. Second language learners frequently learn the second language in a very structured or contrived setting.	5. Simulate real-life situations in the classroom and make use of everyday situations in the classroom to teach the second language.	5. Take advantage of real-life situation that might occur in the classroom, cafeteria, playground, office, hall, etc. These situations can be used for classroom discussion, dialogues, stories, "show and tell."
6. In learning a first language, the learner does not have any previous sounds or structures with which to compare his language. Sounds of the language are easily learned.	6. He knows another language system so sounds and structures of the first language may cause problems in the second language; he may confuse new sounds and structures with those he already knows.	6. Learn the difference between the sounds and structures of the two languages and teach those which are obviously difficult for the child to pronounce.	6. Tongue Twisters, Nonsense Syllables, and Pairing Sounds, can aid the learner to differenciate between the sounds and structures of the two languages. Example: those that are obviously difficult for the child to pronounce like "sch" ("ch" like "k"). The school had to scheme to get the scholar on his schedule. The shoes she chose show that she chooses shoes well.
7. He receives much reinforcement from other speakers in his environment for his language efforts.	7. He may experience a negative attitude from others toward his first language. Furthermore, his attention may be drawn to the errors he makes in the second language rather than his accomplishments.	7. Show appreciation for the culture and language the learner brings to school. Encourage him to participate in the second language and resist the tendency to correct each mistake.	7. Meaningful holidays of the culture can be used to show appreciation for the culture and language the child brings to the school. Encourage the child to participate in the second language during these special holidays and resist the tendency to correct every mistake.
8. In learning a first language, the learner focuses first on meaning then on the structure of the language.	8. The second language learner's attention is often drawn to structure before he has mastered meaning.	8. Always build new language items on what is already known to learner. Emphasize comprehension of language before correct use of language patterns.	8. Build new language experiences on what is already known to learner. Example: Go to the desk and bring me the red book, the blue marker, and the scissors. Read the paragraph and answer the questions on page 11. Always emphasize comprehension of language before correct use of language pattern.

The training content of Module I, Language and Culture, may be summarized as:

1. Not all exceptional students have difficulty with language development.
2. Careful assessment is extremely important.
3. Exceptional LEP children with weak language skills in their first language should work on their native language problems before being introduced to second language.
4. English as a Second Language (ESL) methods should be used, but only concepts clearly understood in first language should be introduced in second language.
5. There must be a merging of what is being taught and what the child brings into the classroom (the language and culture of the home and community).

To assist the teacher in becoming culturally and linguistically aware, the participants in CSHLS are directed to consider the checklist by Muriel Saville-Troike in A Guide to Culture in the Classroom, which follows:

Roles

a. What roles within the group are available to whom, and how are they acquired? Is education relevant to this acquisition?

b. What is the knowledge of and perception by the child, the parents, and the community toward these roles, their availability, and possible or appropriate means of access to them?

c. Is language use important in the definition or social marking of roles?

d. Are these class differences in the expectations about child role attainment? Are these realistic?

e. Do particular roles have positive or malevolent characteristics?

Communication

a. What languages, and varieties of each language, are used in the community: By whom? When? Where? For what purposes?

b. Which varieties are written, and how widespread is knowledge of written forms?

c. What are the characteristics of 'speaking well,' and how do these relate to age, sex, context, or other social factors? What are the criteria for 'correctness?'

d. What roles, attitudes, or personality traits are associated with particular ways of speaking?

e. What range is considered 'normal' speech behavior? What is considered a speech defect?

f. Is learning language a source of pride? Is developing bilingual competence considered an advantage or a handicap?

g. What is the functionality of the native language in the workplace or larger environment?

h. What gestures or postures have special significance or may be considered objectionable? What meaning is attached to direct eye contact? To eye avoidance?

i. Who may talk to whom? When? What about?

Decorum and Discipline

a. What is decorum? How important is it for the individual and for the group?

b. What is discipline? What counts as discipline in terms of culture, and what doesn't? What is its importance and value?

c. What behaviors are considered socially unacceptable for students of different age and sex?

d. Who or what is considered responsible if a child misbehaves? The child? Parents? Older siblings? School? Society? The environment? Or is no blame ascribed?

e. Who has authority over whom? To what extent can one person's will be imposed on another? By what means?

f. How is the behavior of children traditionally controlled, to what extent, and in what domains?

g. Do means of social control vary with recognized states in the life cycle, membership in various social categories, or according to setting or offense?

h. What is the role of language in social control? What is the significance of using the first vs. the second language?

History and Traditions

a. What individuals and events in history are a source of pride for the group?

b. To what extent is knowledge of the group's history preserved?

c. In what forms and in what ways is it passed on?

d. To what extent is there a literate tradition of the history of the group (ie, written history, and knowledge of written history) within the group itself?

e. To what extent are traditions and historical events reflected in aphorisms and proverbs?

f. Do any ceremonies or festive occasions re-enact historical events?

g. How and to what extent does the group's knowledge of history coincide with or depart from "scientific" theories of creation, evolution, and historical development?

h. To what extent does the group in the United States identify with the history and traditions of their country of origin?

i. What changes have taken place in the country of origin since the group or individuals emigrated?

j. For what reasons and under what circumstances did the group or individuals come to the United States (or did the United States come to them)?

Education

a. What is the purpose of education?

b. What kinds of learning are favored (eg., rote, inductive)?

c. What methods for teaching and learning are used at home (eg., modeling and imitation, didactic stories and proverbs, direct verbal instruction)?

d. Do methods of teaching and learning vary with recognized stages in the life cycle? With the setting? According to what is being taught or learned?

e. What is the role of language in learning and teaching?

f. Is it appropriate for students to ask questions or volunteer information? If so, what behaviors signal this? If not, what negative attitudes does it engender?

g. What constitutes a 'positive response' by a teacher to a student? By a student to a teacher?

h. How many years is it considered 'normal' for children to go to school?

i. Are there different expectations by parents, teachers, and students with respect to different groups? In different subjects? For boys vs. girls?

Art and Music

a. What forms of art and music are most highly valued?

b. What media and instruments are traditionally used?

c. What conventions are of particular significance? How do artistic conventions differ from those used or taught in school (eg., the musical scale, two-dimensional representation of distance or depth)?

d. Is the creation of art and music limited to specialists, or within the competence of a wide range of individuals in the community?

e. What forms of art and music are considered appropriate for children to perform or appreciate?

f. Are there any behavioral prescriptions or taboos related to art and music (eg., can both men and women sing, does cutting faces in pumpkins or other fruits or vegetables violate religious concepts)?

g. How and to what extent may approval or disapproval be expressed?

Expectations and Aspirations

a. What defines the concepts of the'disadvantaged' and 'successful?'

b. To what extent is it possible or proper for an individual to express future goals (eg., is it appropriate to ask, 'What do you want to be when you grow up?')?

c. What beliefs are held regarding 'luck' and 'fate'?

d. What significance does adherence to the traditional culture of the group have for the individual's potential achievement (from the viewpoint of both the minority and dominant cultures)?

e. What significance does the acquisition of the majority culture and the English language have (from both minority and dominant cultural perceptions)?

f. What potential roles are available within the native community which can provide individual fulfillment and satisfaction?

g. Do parents expect and desire assimilation of children to the dominant culture as a result of education and the acquisition of English?

h. Are the attitudes of community members and individuals the same as or different from those of community spokesmen?

The purpose of Module II, Modalities, of the CSHLS program is to provide participants with:

1. Ability to identify specific learning modalities;
2. Ability to evaluate students' learning modalities through the observation of classroom behaviors and work skills; and
3. Ability to select or adapt materials for instruction through specific modalities.

The specific modalities discussed are visual, auditory, kinesthetic, and tactile. The in-service training emphasizes that teachers of exceptional LEP children should use a multisensory approach utilizing several learning modalities simultaneously and in variation. In summary, Module II, Modalities, notes:

1. Not all students learn well through all modalities;
2. Teach to students' stronger modalities while remediating weaknesses wherever possible;
3. The teacher who lacks language skills in the native language of the exceptional LEP student should make greater use of visual, kinesthetic and tactile modalities; and
4. The auditory modality is the most important in the acquisition of language and, while it should not be overstressed, it should not be ignored. However, the exceptional LEP student should not be kept from progressing in other areas while he/she is working on acquiring competent second language skills.

In Module III, Specific Handicapping Conditions, various basic teaching strategies are described as well as providing participants with:

1. A working knowledge of specific exceptionalities;
2. An overview of special services programs in the district; and
3. Ability to identify instructional materials appropriate for LEP students of varying exceptionalities.

The materials on exceptionality and materials selection/use covered in Module III of the CSHLS program are essentially the same as those covered in Chapter 12 and in the last part of Chapter 14 of this text. The teaching strategies outlined in Module III may be summarized as follows:

1. Individualize the problem

   In order to plan a remedial program based on individual needs, the teacher needs to be aware of the child's strengths and weaknesses, his levels of functioning, intelligence, emotional status, any relevant medical data, the child's cultural background, and educational history. Much of this information can be found in the child's State folder.

2. Learning Input Precedes Output

   Learning involves both input and putput; eg., the child must understand a concept before he/she can demonstrate it. In working with handicapped LEP students, it is important to determine if students have comprehended; eg., assimilated input correctly, especially when instruction is in the second language. Output difficulties may actually reflect input problems.

3. Utilize Modality Preference

   The number and type of modalities to be used will be determined by the child's particular learning style. The LEP student's language ability must be considered also if instruction is in the second language. The teacher who lacks language skills in the native language of the handicapped student should make greater use of the visual, kinesthetic, and tactile modalities.

4. Control Important Variables

   It is important that the teacher be concerned with:

   a. Controlling student's attention by controlling the elements in the classroom that lead to distractions. Loud noises and an excess of stimuli not related to the immediate learning environment may reduce learning.
   b. Controlling student's proximity to the teacher and other students. Placing the handicapped student near the teacher is often helpful in terms of controlling behavior. Having the student's work area near the teacher also facilitates the teacher's giving additional help and directions to the students as needed.
   c. Controlling the rate of instruction is an especially important consideration in planning instruction for a handicapped student. Handicapped students usually have a slower rate of learning. Therefore, new learning should be introduced gradually.

5. Motivate with Success

   Remediation begins with methods that bring success. Therefore, the teacher should create a learning environment that insures success. In order to do this, the teacher should start to teach a little below the child's instructional level. If the child's reading comprehension is 2.5, the teacher could start at 2.0 level to give the child a few initial successful experiences. The child will then be motivated by his/her success and can move on to the next level. It is important that the handicapped child be provided daily opportunities to feel successful in his/her work.

6. Teach to Strengths, Remediate Deficits

Many times a students can acquire knowledge through his/her stronger channels. Stronger areas can also be used to develop weaker ones. Remedial programs should endeavor to stimulate the functioning of lesser abilities. Even if the weak areas cannot be brought up to average functioning, they can usually be improved and the gap between the student's strengths and weaknesses reduced.

7. Teach Sequentially

Learning should be presented in small structured units, systematically progressing from concepts that have been learned to the next level of difficulty. By using developmental, sequential teaching techniques, the teacher is relating previously learned skills to new tasks; in so doing, the teacher is insuring that the student had developed readiness for the new concepts.

8. Make Provisions for Utilizing Feedback

Feedback can be used in two ways. The feedback received from students can be used diagnostically to appraise student progress and to make changes in the student's educational program when it is obvious that the student is not progressing. Students also need to receive feedback from teachers. There is evidence that the sooner the students knows whether his/her response was right or wrong, the more learning is facilitated. Therefore, individual help and examples with which the child can check his/her work will help shape his/her pattern of response.

9. Reinforce Learning

Learning is also facilitated when reinforced. To reinforce appropriately, systematic attention must be given to the desired behavior when it occurs. Once the behavior is learned, the student should continue to be reinforced. Reinforcement may be given upon completion of several tasks or at the end of an assignment period. The teacher may use concrete rewards where necessary, while encouraging the students' acceptance of intrinsic rewards.

10. Make Use of Peer Tutors

This remedial technique should work especially well with Mexican-American children because of their cultural orientation toward working as a member of a group. Students learn much from one another and usually will retain much of what they learn this way. Peer tutoring can be done with the same class, or across classes, or across age groups. It can be an important instructional tool if it is well planned and developed by teachers and students.

The CSHLS program addresses the coordination of bilingual and special education services in Module IV. The purpose of this Module is to provide participants with:

1. Ability to identify responsibilities of the bilingual and special education teachers in providing coordinated services for exceptional LEP students and
2. Ability to appropriately schedule resources for exceptional LEP students.

Effective coordination of services requires that the bilingual and special education teachers possess certain personal and professional skills. These include:

1. Readiness to cooperate;
2. Willingness to share competencies so that they may work together as a team to meet the needs of exceptional LEP students;
3. Ability to maintain open channels of communication so that solutions can be worked out jointly; and
4. Flexibility with respect to teaching assignments and new teaching methods.

The key to the appropriate schedule of resources in the CSHLS program is the Checklist for Coordination of Services:

In order to complete the checklist, the bilingual and special education teachers must meet to discuss each of the areas included on the checklist. They must develop the objectives on which the student is to work. The teachers will select and check those areas which relate to the individual student's needs.

The areas included on the checklist are:

1. Instructional Objectives

   The bilingual and special education teachers should review the annual goals stated on the student's IEP. They must select approximately 3-5 objectives based on bilingual and special education annual goals. These instructional objectives will be written on the checklist form.

2. Instructional Level

   The student's instructional level should be identified and written on the checklist form. The student's instructional level may vary in different subject areas. English language achievement test scores are available on the student's IEP. If instruction is to be in the student's native language, a determination of his/her instructional level may have to be based on the bilingual teacher's informal assessment.

3. Language Assessment Scale (LAS)

   The LAS score should be included to determine the student's RLP (relative language proficiency) upon entering the bilingual program.

4. Language of Instruction

The bilingual teacher will determine the appropriate language of instruction based on teacher assessment of the student's language proficiency. The LAS scores may be a consideration if the scores are recent. Students are only tested prior to entrance to the bilingual program. Therefore, these scores may only be meaningful if the student was tested within the present school year. The LAS scores are to be included in the student information on the Coordination Chart as well as the date the test was administered.

5. Teacher Responsible for Instruction

The teacher responsible for instruction may vary with the instructional objective. If the language of instruction is the native language, the bilingual teacher will have to assume the responsibility for instruction, at least initially.

6. Instructional Phase

The three instructional phases included on the checklist are:

a. Introduction of Concept
b. Remediation, i.e., working on objective
c. Maintenance, i.e., working on accomplished objective to maintain competency

It is possible that different teachers would be responsible for different instructional phases. For example, a handicapped LEP student, with no or very limited English skills, might be introduced to a new concept by the bilingual teacher in his/her native language. After the student has understood the concept, the special education teacher may be able to provide the necessary remedial instruction.

7. Methods

In determining the instructional methods to be used, the bilingual and special education teachers should consider the student's handicapping condition, his/her instructional level, his/her learning modality, and how these fit into the classroom. For example, a learning disabled student reading on a pre-primer level in a second grade classroom may not fit into any existing reading group. Therefore, the most appropriate method could be one-to-one instruction or a small group situation.

A combination of methods may also be used, i.e., one-to-one instruction followed by work with a peer tutor.

8. Preferred Modality

The bilingual and the special education teachers will indicate on the checklist marked INPUT, the instructional mode that will be utilized to instruct the student. In order to do this, they must know what the student's strongest modalities are. This information may be available from the testing results included in the student's State Special Education folder. If it is not, the special education teacher will have to determine this through informal assessment.

9. Time on Task

The bilingual and special education teachers will have to determine the optimal teaching time for each objective. In order to do this, the following factors must be considered:

a. the student's attention span
b. the time available in the classroom for one-to-one instruction, if this method is to be used

Instruction for the same objective can be divided between time periods, i.e., 20 minutes of math in the morning and 20 minutes of math in the afternoon. The teacher may also divide time on tasks according to the combination of methods being used, i.e., 10 minutes of group instruction followed by 10 minutes of peer tutoring. By varying the materials and methods, the student with a short attention span may be able to work on the same objective for longer periods of time.

10. Reinforcement

The reinforcer should be selected according to what is most rewarding to the student. The checklist suggests the following reinforcers:

a. Praise. Example: "Good work, Ricky. I'm very proud of you."

b. Touching. Example: Hugging, pat on back, hand on shoulder. This is usually most effective when combined with praise.

c. Teacher's helper. Example: The student can pass out paper, water plants, etc.

d. Peer tutoring. Many students want to work as a peer tutor. This often reinforces learning and also promotes self-esteem. Even the very slow student can perform certain peer tutoring functions such as showing flashcards to another student, calling out spelling words, working with a student at the board on math facts, etc.

e. Free time. The student can earn time to look at books, play games, work puzzles, listen to the record player, work on art activities, etc.

There are many other reinforcers which could be used and the teacher may want to use a reinforcer not included on this list. These reinforcers are only offered as some which can easily be used in a regular classroom setting. The teacher may also use a combination of reinforcers such as praise and touching, or being a teacher's helper and a peer tutor.

11. Evaluation

The teacher responsible for instruction will be responsible for the evaluation of that instructional objective. Evaluation can be accomplished by one of several methods: competency tests, charting, or collection of student work samples. Evaluation should be done regularly. Competency tests and collection of work samples can be done daily, or even weekly. Charting should be done daily. A peer tutor can be taught to keep a daily chart of skills with which he is working.

The bilingual and special education teachers should meet at least once every two weeks to review student progress and determine what changes, if any, need to be made in the student's plan. One problem for teachers is to find the time to get together to plan and review the student's IEP. The checklist format used in this model should help minimize the time required for planning and reviewing.

In summary, coordination of bilingual and special education services for exceptional LEP children depends upon the coordinated development of an IEP, the checklist of information for effective planning, and the use of resources made available through CSHLS. These resources are identified by language, learning modality, and instructional level in the CSHLS Resource Manual provided to all participating teachers.

June 1982

Bilingual Language Learning System (BLLS)

CURRICULUM OUTLINE

I. Normative data
  A. Developmental sequences in Spanish
    1. Phonology
      a. Regional variations
    2. Morphology/Syntax
    3. Semantics
      a. Regional variations
    4. Pragmatics
      a. Regional variations
  B. Dual language acquisition: the bilingual child

II. General considerations in assessment
  A. Research base
    1. How to access research (people and places)
    2. Bibliography
    3. Need for future research on bilingual children with language disorders (example of a case study)
  B. Cultural aspects
    1. Socialization to test taking
    2. Geographic/socioeconomic status
    3. Other speech/language disorders

III. Assessment procedures
  A. Philosophy - functional communication sample
  B. Procedures (systematic observation) - review
    1. Handout
    2. Videotape
  C. Particular systems for obtaining samples for:
    1. Monolingual
    2. Bilingual
      Eg., how to tap the two systems and establish a language set in different communication situations
  D. Generic problems with discrete point testing
    1. Critique of standardized tests in notebook
    2. Criteria for valid/reliable tests
    3. How to use standardized tests if you must use them
  E. Screening
    1. Language dominance
    2. Language proficiency measure (Tucson) - false positive issue
  F. Multiple case files
    1. Translated forms
  G. Need for real parent interviewing
  H. Conferencing with significant other/caretaker
  I. Prescriptive statement - aim for ideal

J. Hearing
K. As part of Institute exercise, translate information into IEP format
L. Environment for assessment - need for flexibility
M. Additional points
  •• A cursory treatment of disorders other than language is sufficient when discussing cultural factors for the first curriculum
  •• Hearing assessment can be discussed in the section on language disorders
  •• Alternatives to traditional service delivery models; for ex., home assessment, and the need for flexibility in location and time of assessment need to be addressed as part of a discussion of the environment for assessment

IV. Assessment - who should do (screening and indepth)
  A. Bilingual/bicultural person should do assessment for Spanish monolingual or Spanish dominant child
    1. Speech-language pathologist on staff - as defined by school district
    2. Speech-language pathology consultant from somewhere else
    3. Team of professional equals who are both knowledgeable; e.g., monolingual speech-language pathologist and another professional, e.g., special education teacher who is bilingual/bicultural
    4. Special education cooperative hires a bilingual speech-language pathologist
    5. Not an interpretor (trained or untrained) or teacher aid (Develop rationale.)
    6. Not all bilinguals (criteria needed) - varies with population to be served

V. Case selection
  A. Language disorder/delay has to exist in the primary language
  B. Criteria based on normative data from literature (with annotated bibliography)
  C. Practical exercises (need detailed information)
  D. Case selection decisions for other disorders

VI. Intervention Strategies
  A. Choice of language for treatment (rationale for choice of Spanish, choice of English)
    1. Language of the home
    2. Age of the child - if under 10 years, choose primary language
    3. Emotional ties with significant other
    4. Other criteria
  B. Choice of interventionist
    1. If Spanish is to be learned:

a. Bilingual/bicultural speech-language pathologist
b. If only monolingual speech-language pathologists are available, refer child to ESL, nursery school, bilingual education program and/or significant other with prescription and ongoing consultation by person who did the assessment and referral
c. A bilingual/bicultural professional must always be involved
d. Principles of treatment; e.g., using culturally relevant materials
e. Places to obtain materials

2. If English is to be learned:
a. Bilingual/bicultural speech-language pathologist
b. Speech-language pathologist with cultural awareness (operationally define)
1) Familiar with English use of the particular Hispanic community
2) Familiar with contrastive features of Spanish
c. Exclude ESL teacher (elaborate on differences in methodology)
d. Unavailability of appropriate bilingual/bicultural speech-language pathologist not an excuse

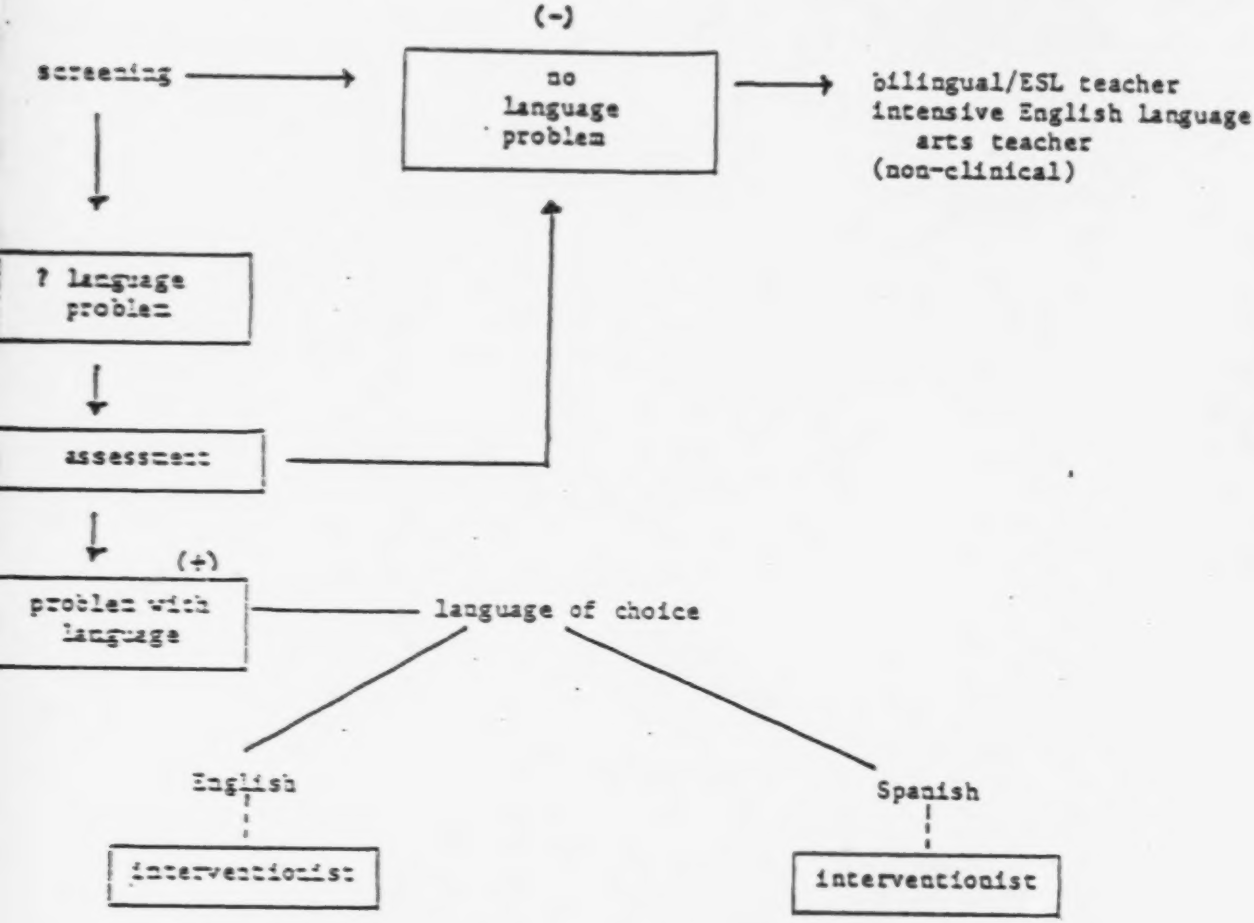
3. Additional points
•• Discuss what to do in the case of bilingual parents with nonverbal child
•• Develop specific examples
•• Concern is about who is doing intervention as opposed to what to do
•• Discussion of treatment materials is not necessary for the first curriculum
4. Flow chart for assessment/treatment alternatives (attached)

C. Implications for education
1. Speech-language pathologist has to be involved in curricular adaptation and choice of materials (specify why)
2. Academic curriculum will be taught in the child's strongest language
3. Alternatives
a. Self-contained classroom
b. Extended resource
c. Mainstreaming with support services
4. Mastery of cognitive/linguistic processing skills in the dominant language facilitates subsequent transfer of skills to another language
5. Importance of language skills in regard to reading, writing, math

VII. Areas which should receive emphasis in this curriculum include the following:
A. Developmental sequences
B. Choice of language for treatment
C. Generic problems with discrete point testing
D. Choice of interventionist

Bilingual Language Learning System (BLLS)

Assessment/Treatment Flow Chart


(-)
screening
no language problem
bilingual/ESL teacher
intensive English language arts teacher
(non-clinical)
? language problem
assessment
(+)
problem with language
language of choice
English
interventionist
Spanish
interventionist

- bilingual/bicultural speech-language pathologist
- monolingual speech-language pathologist with cultural awareness

- bilingual/bicultural speech-language pathologist (primary interventionist) in cooperation with:
  - bilingual teacher
  - significant other
- If only monolingual speech-language pathologist available, refer to:
  - bilingual/bicultural speech-language pathologist who acts as consultant to primary interventionist(s): bilingual teacher and significant other
  - bilingual teacher in consultation with the team of professionals who performed the assessment; e.g., monolingual speech-language pathologist and bilingual special educator
  - bilingual speech-language pathologist with cultural awareness

1981-1982 PROJECT PROGRESS REPORT

October 26, 1982

Name of Project: Bilingual Special Education Teacher Candidate Project

Grantee:
Office of the Los Angeles County Superintendent of Schools
Division of Project Funding and Management
9300 East Imperial Highway
Downey, California 90242

Project Manager: Elsa N. Brizzi (213 922-6756)

Description of Project:

The purpose of the project is to increase the number of qualified special education professionals who are bilingual by providing financial support, guided practical experience and counseling to bilingual persons with teaching potential who probably would not otherwise obtain teaching credentials. Candidates for the program must be bilingual, must be prepared to enter college at the sophomore level or higher, and must have experience in working with handicapped children, usually as paid or volunteer instructional aide employed by the County Schools or a school district. The project reimburses participants quarterly for tuition, fees and $100 towards books.

Thirty (30) participants are enrolled as full time students at California State University at Los Angeles, since their work sites are in schools in that area, and 15 candidates for the Winter quarter are now in the selection process.

Evaluation:

The project has recruited and selected thirty (30)eligible participants and they are enrolled in college and participating in the project in the manner defined by the proposal. The original schedule has been met. Evaluation Report for 1981-1982 has been submitted. Audit trace documents for the program and participants regarding meeting dates, agendas, minutes, and persons attending as well as information on participant status are on file.

msf

BILINGUAL SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHER CANDIDATE PROJECT

SCOPE OF WORK FOR 1981-1982

Procedures	Program Year One											
	J	J	A	S	O	N	D	J	F	M	A	M
Recruited and selected 30 candidates o participate in the program	*	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	*
rovided candidate orientation			*				*		*			
Enrolled 30 candidates in University				*				*		*		
Verified candidate status (criteria or participation)					*			*				*
laced 15 candidates in aide positions r other experiences focused on special ducation					*	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
rovided candidate training, counseling, etc. for job success	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
eld meeting of supervising teachers							*		*		*	
veloped/updated education and employability plans	*	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	*
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MSF

BILINGUAL SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHER CANDIDATE PROJECT

1982-1983 OBJECTIVES

Objectives	Candidates	Expected Outcomes, 1982-1983
- Thirty (30) participants who are currently in the project will continue	- Verify and monitor participant status every quarter (4)	- Thirty (30) participants will successfully complete one academic year based on criteria
- Fifteen (15) new candidates will be admitted to the project. All will satisfactory progress by meeting the following criteria:	- Place eligible participants on bilingual and special education credentialing tracks	- Fifteen (15) participants will complete three academic quarters
• be a full-time baccalaureate candidate at California State University at Los Angeles	- Assess school districts for special education specialty needs	• 18 participants will obtain baccaluareate degrees by June, 1983
• carry 48 quarter units per year (equivalent to 32 semester units	- Disseminate and assist personnel departments in professional placement	• Five participants will obtain bilingual teaching credentials by June, 1983
• maintain a 2.5 grade point average	- Hold monthly meetings with university departments of bilingual education and special education	
• work, paid or unpaid, at least 3 hours/week in special education or a special needs setting of your choice		
• attend inservice/training session once per month (4 hours) provded by project		
- Admit five (5) candidates through scholarships		

Objective	Activities	Expected Outcomes, 1982-83
Place participants in aide positions or other experiences focused on special education	Identify and assist in school district placement Evaluate participants	All 45 participants will be employed as part-time paid or volunteer aides in a special education class and the satisfactory character of their work will be verified by the principal.
Provide training, counseling etc. for job success and development of ongoing individual employability and plans	Develop and implement one participant workship per month Provide quarterly counseling sessions with each participant Hold one meeting with supervising teachers Development/update education and employability plans	Each participant will obtain competency in bilingual/special education and will have an employability and educational plan on file which specifies how practical experience at the work site, inservice education participation, and college course work contribute to those plans

Objective	Activities	Expected Outcomes, 1982-1983
To provide support to participants and project by: • identifying resources and use systems • assisting institutionalization of bilingual/special education and the project • disseminating project information • placement of candidates in bilingual/special education teaching positions	- Publicize project - Report quarterly to 65 consortia school districts - Recruit and select candidates for project waiting list - Assist in the development and institutionalization of bilingual/ special education university curriculum - Meet quarterly with personnel director from 95 school districts • to identify special education specialty needs and special education • identify credential job opening in special education • hold quarterly advisory meetings	- Five (5) participants placed in project through community-based sponsorships/scholarships - Bilingual/multicultural strands in university special education credential core curriculum - A project model for dissemination - Ongoing participation by school districts in identifying special education teaching needs and a system for credentialled employment and placement of candidates

COLLEGE OF ARTS AND SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF SPEECH

Speech and Hearing Center
Box 3W/Las Cruces, New Mexico 88003
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PROGRAM PROGRESS REPORT

for

BUENO-MUSEP Bilingual Special Education Institute

Phoenix, Arizona
October 30-31, 1982

The training program in communicative disorders at New Mexico State University has been and is in full accord with the intent of PL 94-142 and the U.S. Department of Education's commitment of assuring equal educational opportunities for all handicapped children. The implementation of that commitment through the services of our graduates is the basic goal of our training program. The specific goal of our program is the training of personnel who can aid the communicatively handicapped child in achieving a functional communication system(s) adequate for his/her personal, educational, and vocational needs.

Of the twelve program priorities established for the training of personnel for the education of the handicapped (Federal Register, Vol. 42, No. 75, Tuesday, April 19, 1977), and with the acknowledgement in the Rules and Regulations that the development of functional communication may be addressed under any or all of the priorities, the preparation of personnel in this program specifically addressed the priorities of early childhood education, the severely handicapped and general special education in its formal coursework and practicum activities. Additionally, having long recognized that the traditional role of the communicative disorders specialist must change, we provide both pedagogical and field experiences that will enable our graduates to respond to the additional priorities identified with the labels of regular education, the paraprofessional, volunteers, and model implementation (i.e. innovative delivery systems).

The role of the communicative disorders specialist, as envisioned by this program, is one of providing direct diagnostic, therapeutic, and consultative services for individuals handicapped by disorders of speech, language, and/or hearing; and of working with and/or supervising other professionals, paraprofessionals, and volunteers who provide direct or supportive services to the communicatively handicapped. Given this role, the speech/language pathologist and the audiologist of necessity serve all areas of handicapping conditions, regardless of the classification of the primary handicapping condition.

In preparing for this role, students in the program complete the appropriate academic and practicum work for one of the Certificates of Clinical Competence issued by the American Speech-Language-Hearing Association; concurrently meet requirements of the New Mexico State Department of

Education for certification as speech language pathologists, audiologists; in some cases qualify as communication disorders specialists (i.e. classroom teachers of moderately and/or severely communicatively handicapped children); and meet the requirements for licensure by the State of New Mexico.

Within the broad goals of the program, special attention is given to the needs of the communicatively disordered bilingual individual. This emphasis has always been present in the program, coming not only from the interest of the communicative disorders faculty but also from the presence in the department of the university's English as a Second Language program for international students, the majority of whom have been Hispanic. The emphasis was formalized several years ago in the initiation of a separate course entitled "Communicative Disorders and Bilingualism." A measure of the involvement of the program with the bilingual child is found in the fact that after a state-wide search, two current and one past member of the program faculty were selected to represent New Mexico in the Bilingual Language Learning Systems project being conducted by the American Speech-Language=Hearing Association.

The program is involved in an on-going evaluation of the impact of services provided by our graduates to the communicatively disordered. One component of that evaluation has to do with severely handicapped children from multi-lingual, multi-cultural, multi-ethnical backgrounds. Our information is anecdotal in nature, but all of our graduates working in school settings report that some of their cases fit the multi-lingual, multi-cultural, multi-ethnical severely handicapped category. They also report that 90 percent of these children had not received therapy before entering school.

With the pre-school population being the one that has been most ignored in the past, our last few surveys have provided hopeful information of program graduates. Before 1979, none of our graduates had been employed specifically for early childhood public school positions; two were employed for such positions in 1979, another two in 1980, another in 1981 and still another in 1982. This is a marked change as far as graduates of this program are concerned. Additionally, we know that our graduates with elementary public school placements all provide services at the kindergarten level. The placement of one graduate in 1979, another in 1980, and still another in 1981, in state residential schools is another indicator that services are expanding for the severely handicapped, apparently at both the pre-school and school age levels. Finally, placement of a 1980 graduate and a 1981 graduate in Regional Service Centers with specific responsibility for serving multi-lingual/cultural pre-school children is yet another indicator of impact. The only conclusion available is that our training program is impacting on this particular population of children.

Finally, a word about the students majoring in communicative disorders at New Mexico State University. The program has always been successful in recruiting members of racial and ethnic minority groups. At the present time, fully one third of the undergraduates are Hispanic as are one quarter of the graduates. New Mexico has realtively few Blacks, but in the past the program graduated four such individuals. Efforts to recruit Native American students have finally resulted in two such individuals as undergraduates and one as a graduate student.

The report of an outside evaluation of the training program in communicative disorders conducted in 1981 by Robert L. Ringel, Dean of the School of Humanities, Social Sciences and Education at Purdue University, included the following statement: "The entire program of the Department of Speech serves the state and the nation quite well....A unique feature of the program is the ethnic mix of the student body. NMSU along with a very few other institutions has done much to provide Hispanics to the professional ranks. In this way, the university is not only a state resource but a national one as well. Past recruiting efforts are to be applauded and future attention is to be urged."

NAVAJO SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHER DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM (NSETDP)

The primary concern of this project is the preparation of Navajo Special Education Teachers in order to meet the special educational needs of handicapped Navajo children. A specifically designed program was needed to address the problems experienced by Navajo handicapped students as they try to cope with ever increasing complexities in education by providing for them teachers who could identify and relate to their needs - Navajo Special Education Teachers. In 1975, the Navajo Division of Education contracted with the University of Arizona to deliver services for a field-based teacher special education program. The Navajo Special Education Teacher Development Program is now in its sixth year of successful operation. The NSETDP program originally began as an undergradute degree program in conjunction with the University of Arizona (U of A), Tucson, Arizona. The undergraduate program produced fourteen (14) special education teachers with Bachelors Degrees in Special Education. In 1980, the NSETDP program was changed to a graduate degree program and moved from the University of Arizona to Northern Arizona University (NAU), Flagstaff, Arizona. The graduate degree program is just completing its second (2nd) year at NAU. The Navajo Special Education Teacher Development Program currently is helping the twenty-five (25) Navajo student participants to attend the 1982 autumn session at NAU. The financial assistance will be provided by the Department of Higher Education (Scholarship) to assist students with direct educational expenses. NSETDP students will complete or pick up up to twelve (12) credit hours for the summer session. At the end of the 1982 summer session, seven (7) NSETDP students will complete their requirements and receive their Masters Degree in Special Education. The seven Navajo students will be the first graduate students to graduate from Northern Arizona University since the program was moved in 1980.

The accomplishments listed here include some carried over from the first and second year. These accomplishments are as follows:

(A) The Navajo Tribe has negotiated a subcontract with Northern Arizona University, College of Education, Department of Special Education, to continue operation of the program for the period June 01, 1981 to May 30, 1982. The terms of the subcontract provide for the development and implementation of a three year graduate level training cycle in Special Education at Northern Arizona University for thirty (30) Navajo students to continue their training for the second project year.

(B) The criteria for student selection for participation in the program were developed by the Navajo Division of Education staff, the Navajo Professions Development Advisory Board, and in conjunction with the University staff and project director.

The Navajo Division of Education staff and the Advisory Board recruited and selected students into the Navajo Special Education Teacher Development Program based on the following criteria:

1. Commitment of the applicant to the program - Demonstration of interest and commitment to the field of Special Education and the needs of the handicapped children; evidence of effective participation in a classroom as a teacher as well as participation in on-the-job in service type training opportunities to continue development of skills capability, summer workshops, or other after hours training opportunities; expressed statement of personal goals and ambitions related to Special Education and the overall attitude of the applicant towards participation in the project.
2. Present work situation - Consideration was given to the present job status of the applicant with regard to its relevancy to actual linkages and work with handicapped children (Navajo), or the willingness on part of the student applicant to accept a position in a Special Education classroom or facility

if assistance were provided by the Navajo Division of Education in identifying such job openings.

3. Agencies demonstrating the most positive attitudes toward the development of Navajo personnel by granting release time with pay one day a week, provision of facilities, or a past record of commitment to Navajo Education, were given first consideration for applicants to the program from that agency.
4. Review of background and personal interview by NDOE staff and the Navajo Special Education Advisory Board. Since Advisory Board members are from communities all over the reservation, most applicants were known by one or more board members. This strategy provided a review of the applicant with regard to his or her personal background, character, degree of community responsibility, particpation in community affairs, leadership potential, and potential change/agent ability.
5. References from present supervisors, agency administrators and other personnel familiar with the applicant's present or past job performance, and effectiveness in working with children.
6. Transcript review by appropriate University personnel to determine university status and academic background strengths and/or deficiencies.

C. Final student selection was accomplished by the first class meeting which was held on August 26, 1980. Twenty-four (24) master's degree level Navajo participants have been selected, most of whom are working in Special Education job situtations with various public schools, Bureau of Indian Affairs or private Navajo schools on the Reservation.

D. Cooperative communication links have been established with administrators in the agencies where project students are presently employed. These links facilitate project participation, provide a supportive atmosphere for project students, and facilitate supervision by project and university staff.

(E) The project applied for a supplementary grant last year to incorporate tutorial services and site observations into the program. This year there are no supplementary grants. Students had difficulty in language translation and cognitive skills as a result of their culture and isolated environment. The grant was to strengthen and support the Special Education teaching styles of the present students. Such support can enhance the performance of project students by impacting on their individual delivery of instruction as well as the handicapped Navajo children.

(F) The present project year emphasis for the thirty (30) Navajo students is on the development of Navajo professional personnel having expertise in the areas of Learning Disabilities, Reading and Learning Disabilities, Mental Retardation, and Emotionally Handicapped, with appropriate related educational diagnostic skills. These areas of training, both implemented and planned, correlate to the identified needs of the Navajo handicapped population and the program priorities of reservation service agencies.

(G) Site selection has been secured from the Navajo Tribal Training Center in Window Rock, Arizona to utilize classroom space for project instructional purposes. Window Rock was selected for several reasons:

1. Window Rock is the home and employment location of the majority of project students. Window Rock is more centralized for a majority of students from the Northern and Eastern part of the reservation. Services are lacking for students from Western Navajo, which means that an assessment must be made to determine if additional sites are needed to reach potential students who currently are not in the project.
2. Accessibility to facility in bad weather. Window Rock is accessible both by air and paved roads. In addition, during bad weather, the roads are usually cleared off.
3. Adequacy of size and attractiveness of facility. The Navajo Tribal Training Center has large rooms to accommodate the Special Education classes. Other classroom aides are also available such as Audio-visual equipment, blackboards, refreshment machines, etc.
4. No cost is being charged for use of room for the project.

(H) Project integration is occurring at the University campus office level and the Navajo Division of Education office level where facilities, phone, office maintenance expenses, and travel expenses are shared with the Navajo Teacher Education Development Program.

II. ANTICIPATED ACCOMPLISHMENTS FOR CONTINUATION PROJECT

Expansion and refinement of this year's activities will continue into the next project year. Efforts will be made to refine all program activities including management of personnel; supervision of students; evaluation of program effectiveness including student skills development and impact for change in existing agencies. During the next project year particular emphasis will be placed on the following areas;

A. Continued refinement of the "Clinical Teacher" model in order to prepare Navajo students for employment in multicategorical settings in order to avoid the perpetuation of narrow and rigidly categorical service programs for handicapped children. Within the refinement of this model, additional attention will be focused on the development of culturally relevant diagnostic and curriculum management skills by each trainee in the program.

B. Expanded efforts will also be made in the areas of dissemination of project information to local, state and federal agencies, and professional organizations.

III. REVISED STATEMENT OF OBJECTIVES

No attempt will be made to reiterate those projects objectives as listed and approved in the original project proposal. Only those objectives being modified in some way are stated here:

A. To complete the requirements for a Graduate Degree and Special Education Certification for 30 students (instead of 40 students as stated in the orginal proposal) spanning a two year period starting June 01, 1980.

B. The areas of Special Education to be offered will be Mental Retardation (M.R.) Emotionally Handicapped (E.H.), Learning Disabilities and Reading and Learning Disabilities.

C. The University must provide a minimum of 6 hours (instead of the 9 hours stated in the original proposal) of course work during the fall and spring semesters.

IV. SUMMARY STATEMENT

With the support of the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped and the expertise of the Special Education faculty of Northern Arizona Univeristy, the Navajo Tribe has been able to begin implementation of an innovative, field-based teacher preparation program that has as its primary purpose the development of highly skilled

Navajo persons who will be able to significantly affect the qualitity of services available to the over 18,000 Navajo school age children in need of the total spectrum of special educational services. It is the intent of the Navajq Tribe to continue, and to intensify, its efforts to insure that the special educational needs of our people are met.

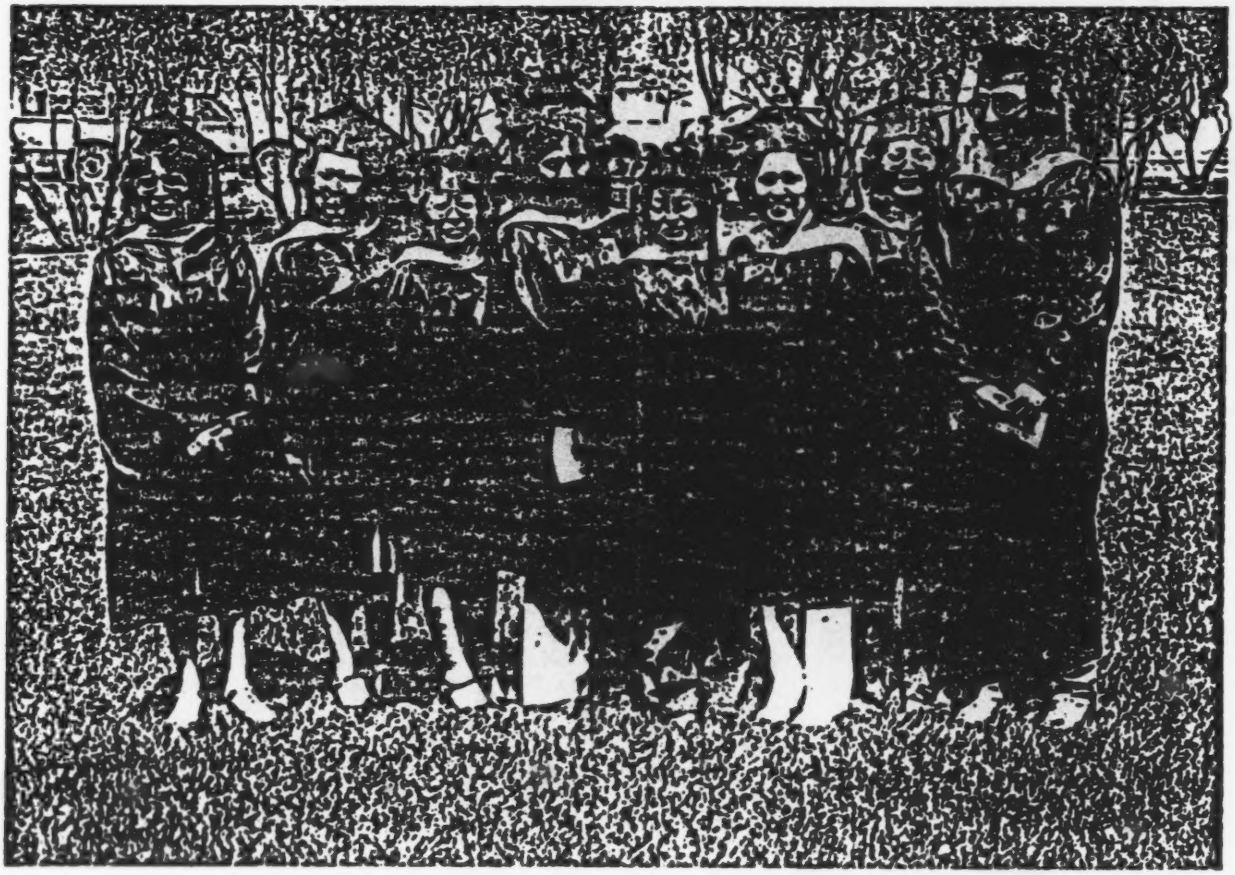
Evaluation

In this final year of the current program funding, the Navajo Division of Education, through the Special Education Coordinator and Secretary positions, will undertake a follow-up study of the program graduates and non-graduates. An evaluation questionnaire will be designed for interviewing a random sample of current and previous students. Travel to different work sites on and around the reservation, where ex-students are currently employed/residing, has been budgeted in order for the Special Education Coordinator to carry-out the interviews. The results will be analyzed quantitatively (statistically) and qualitatively (analytically) as appropriate to the types of information collected. The results will be incorporated into the final report and also written-up for dissemination to professional organizations and other interested agencies. The Coordinator will also collaboarte with the Dine Center for Human Development at Navajo Community College (funded under a separate BEH grant) to update a Special Education manpower needs survey which will serve as an evaluation indication/base-line as to how well the two programs have been able to meet the special education personnel needs of the Navajo Nation.

Dissemination of Program Results

With the updated needs assessment, evaluation report and previous program reports extending back to the program's beginning, the program Coordinator and NAU Director will develop an overview of accomplishments, problems and failures with a view to presenting the findings to regional and national organizations and, possibly, publishing in an appropriate journal.

THE GRADUATES OF SEPTEMBER, 1982



DINE' CENTER FOR HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

TRAINING PROJECT PROGRESS REPORT
FOR THE
NAVAJO SPECIAL EDUCATION SUPPORT
PERSONNEL TRAINING PROJECT

Presented at: BUENO-MUSEP Bilingual
Special Education Institute
Phoenix, Arizona

October 30-31, 1982

Jud R. Cunningham, Presentor

BACKGROUND

The 1972 feasibility study, which led to the establishment of the Dine' Center for Human Development, identified a variety of man-power and parent training needs on the Navajo reservation. In response to these needs, the Dine' Center proposed a project designed to help prepare Navajos to fulfill the role of school psychologists, occupational therapists, speech therapists, and physical therapists on the reservation, and systematically address the need for parent training. The unique feature of this project was the approach it took to the problem of recruiting Navajos and assuring that they remain on the reservation after completing training. The grant application proposed providing part of the training on the reservation and part at campuses in surrounding universities. The proposal was submitted and approved by the Bureau of Education of the Handicapped, and the project began June 1, 1980. The project as approved, contains three major activities:

A. Recruitment, encouragement, and support of Navajos into professional training programs which would qualify them to provide support services to handicapped children on the reservation:

    1) Physical therapy

    2) Occupational therapy

3) Speech therapy

This component was designed to identify qualified Navajo students, counsel with them, and encourage them to enter into professional university training programs in the three disciplines listed above.

B. Educational diagnostician/school psychology program

This component was designed to recruit Navajo teachers, counselors, and others who currently held BA degrees and working on the reservation into a graduate program designed to prepare them for appropriate certification as educational diagnositians/school psychologists.

C. Navajo parent training component

This component was designed to train parents of handicapped Navajo children in their native language of their rights under public law 94-142, and prepare them to assume a more active role in planning and advocating for the handicapped child.

Objective A--Training Support Personnel

Activities and Accomplishments

It was the purpose of Objective A to recruit, encourage, and support Navajo students to obtain training and enter career fields in certain professional areas of critical need and on the reservation. Appropriately trained and certified personnel are critically needed to provide occupational therapy, physical therapy, and speech therapy for handicapped Navajo children.

Activities described in the project application included, sending out information about the need for training Navajos in these areas, identifying potential Navajos interested in such professional careers, counseling them, helping them to enter the professional training programs, and carrying them along through training; advising them, and helping them find financial support throughout their training.

During the first year of the project, general information was sent out to high schools, colleges, and other training programs throughout and near the reservation; potential candidates were identified and screened. The results of these efforts was encouraging, but very few Navajos actually entered into the target careers. During the second year, in response to the evaluation, a much more individualized recruitment, encouragement and support approach was taken. Mr. Zah contacted department heads at the various universities and colleges which offer training programs in the three areas listed above. During these contacts he determined how many Navajo students were currently in the program, and obtained faculty and administrative commitment to encourage and foster the placement of Navajos in these professional training programs. As of August 12, the following recruitment and placement results were reported:

1) Physical Therapy

   One Navajo student had been admitted into an accredited physical therapy training program; Two other Navajo students are in the process of obtaining acceptance into accredited training programs.

2) Occupational Therapy

Two Navajo students were admitted to the occupational therapy training program at the Colorado State University. In addition, one student is currently taking prerequisite coursework with the declared purpose of applying for occupational therapy training at Colorado State University. Two other students are enrolled in undergraduate, lower division programs, preparing to enter occupational therapy training at the completion of their current programs. One of these students is attending Ganado College; the other, Navajo Community College.

3) Speech Therapy

A total of nine Navajos are currently declared majors in professional speech pathology training programs. Six Navajos are pursuing training at Northern Arizona University; one at the University of Arizona, one at Denver University, and one at the University of New Mexico.

Obstacles

Many obstacles were experienced in pursuing Objective A. Some students that expressed a vocational interest in these career fields had very poor academic records, thus requiring an extended preparation period in which they were required to take prerequisite courses and basic education and science courses before they could enter into professional schools. Mr. Zah contacted department heads and administrators of the various schools and departments in several universities in which training of OT, PT, and speech therapists is provided. The administrators were encouraged to give special consideration and attention to Navajo students. Navajo students sometimes need special encouragement, tutoring, financial assistance, and in some cases, certain entrance requirements need to be waived.

The task of recruiting, entering, maintaining, and supporting Navajos in the professional schools is very similar to the task supporting other minorities and low income people in the Upward Bound or Special Services Programs. Such programs are provided in most universities throughout the United States for undergraduates. The principle difference is that PT, OT, and special speech therapy training is generally at the graduate level, and training departments in these professional fields have not been in the habit of providing such special consideration and attention.

It is difficult to determine the results and effects of activities designed to meet Objective A. At this point there has been insufficient time for the impact to be visible. Several Navajos have been recruited, entered into the program, and carried for two years; thus, it is probable that they can, over the next two years, finish their professional training and return to the reservation to provide services.

Much of the emphasis on the activities for Objective A this past year has been directed toward recruiting students, screening them, and enrolling them. Once enrolled, coordination is necessary with the Navajo scholarship office to obtain the necessary support for each student. The results of such effort are difficult to measure and the impact will not be seen for two or three more years.

Objective B--Education Diagnostician/School Psychologist

Activities and Accomplishments

The project director and other staff have devoted a significant amount of time and effort to Objective B. The first year (1981), 14 Navajos were recruited and enrolled in the school psychology training program. Initial prerequisite coursework, e.i., "Group Testing" and "Psychological Measurement" were offered on the reservation through the Utah State University extension program. During the summer of 1981, these 14 Navajo students enrolled in the summer program at Utah State University. During the 1981 summer session this group completed 14 graduate hours in an approved training program leading toward certification in School Psychology. Coursework included: "Native American Cultural Aspects of Psychological Services," "Individual Assessment," "Counseling and Psychotherapy," and "Assessment of the Individual."

During the fall of 1981, a practicum course in psychological testing and counseling was offered on the reservation. Practicum hours were also accummulated in December and in the spring of 1982.

During the summer of 1982, the following courses were offered at Utah State University: "Diagnosis of Reading Difficulties," and "Theories of Learning." Arrangements have beem made for additional practicum hours on the reservation for the fall of 1982 in addition to 6 credit hours in Special Education.

Although this program has experienced some delay due to difficulties of getting coursework approved and offered on the reservation during the fall and spring of 1981-82; for the most part the program has proceeded smoothly and as was planned. Complications that have arisen have been overcome by obtaining scholarship support from the tribal scholarship office. Each of the Navajo candidates have been able to obtain scholarship funding for both on-campus and on-reservation coursework.

Comments of the Navajo candidates in the program indicate that they felt the program has been an outstanding experience. They report that coursework offered was substantive, with few instances of repetion with coursework previously taken. Most of the Navajo school psychology candidates were very positive about the program and the quality of instruction.

Faculty members involved in the Project indicated that the Navajo school psychology students were ambitious and hard-working graduate student candidates. The only systematic weakness indicated was in writing and research skills. Willingness to work and commitment to the program was rated as outstanding by instructors. The number of candidates in the program is higher than was anticipated. Retention of those initially entering in the program has been 90 percent.

Objective C--Navajo Parent Training Component

Activities and Accomplishments

The third objective was to design and provide training to parents of handicapped children. Such training was to be provided in their native language and to address their rights under Public Law 94-142. The purpose of this objective was to improve the awareness and understanding of Navajo parents of handicapped children to the point that they could play a more meaningful role and make appropriate decisions regarding the education of their children.

The activities undertaken consisted of developing parent training materials in the Navajo language and to train parents to more effectively serve as partners and advocates for the handicapped on the reservation.

During the past year, group workshops have been held periodically, but most of the training has been pursued on a one-to-one consulting basis. Parent training activities have been undertaken in conjunction with the Dine' Association for Handicapped Citizens.

Efforts to accomplish Objective C have been hampered by difficulties, including problems of transportation, complications of the language barrier, and difficulties of translating legal terms and concepts in English into understandable Navajo.

In addition to advocacy training and organization activities of the Navajo parents of handicapped children, this component has had as a major objective, the preparation of curriculum materials designed to address six major areas:

1. Legal rights and responsibilities
2. Normal growth and development
3. Cause and prevention
4. Treatment and services
5. Parent role and participation
6. Funding sources

The activities and procedures outlined in the application for developing these curriculum materials involved a series of steps:

1. Collection of existing materials
2. Adaptation of existing materials
3. Translation of appropriate sections
4. Field testing of parent materials by individual contacts in the different groups
5. Further revisions

Although all of the materials have not been completed in final form at this point, the training sessions have been conducted and materials accumulated and utilized, revised, and adapted repeatedly.

In March the U.S. Department of Education submitted a letter to the project director indicating that approximately 48.5 percent of their funding would be terminated this year. In consultation with the project staff and the Director of the Dine' Center, it was determined that the parent training program would have to receive a significant amount of that reduction in support. As an alternative, the project has initiated efforts with the Headstart program (NHS) to incorporate the parent training into their parent training program. This would permit the completion of these units, further field testing, and a network in which they could be effectively utilized. Since partial funding has been restored through supplemental appropriations, activities in this area are now receiving new emphasis.

Additional Resources in Bilingual Special Education

In addition to public school programs and teacher training programs, there are several other resources available that are contributing to the overall effort of bilingual special education. These resources are for the most part federally funded. However, some are state funded and some additional resources are available through professional organizations.

Among the federally funded programs that are addressing bilingual special education, the following projects are of special importance:

The National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education (NCBE)

This project was established in 1977 through Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA). It functions as a national information center for bilingual education. Its primary purpose is to answer questions from students, parents and professionals regarding all aspects of bilingual education. The current project brochure describes the six different types of services the NCBE provides, as follows:

Toll-free hot line: (800) 336-4560. Trained teams of information specialists will answer queries or send responses to questions.

Information resources. NCBE identifies and maintains current information about organizations which are involved in bilingual education, including government agencies, Title VII projects, publishers, professional organizations, and other information clearinghouses.

Information products. Each year the Clearinghouse commissions and publishes a series of information analysis products which address the specific needs of the bilingual education field. Well-known and highly respected authors address critical topics, providing new insight about issues of particular concern. A list of NCBE publications is available upon request. FORUM, the monthly newsletter, contains current news articles and items concerning bilingual education; it is distributed at no charge.

Information processing. To manage the current information explosion in bilingual education, the Clearinghouse is creating a computerized information database designed to provide replies to queries, referral to primary sources, or particular kinds of bibliographic references. The goal is to develop and maintain a complete and up-to-date record of information relevant to bilingual education.

On-line search services. Limited on-line search services are available free of charge. NCBE has access to many databases which are searched for information on bilingual education and related topics. Call or write for a search request form.

Field representatives. NCBE field representatives, working in cooperation with selected Bilingual Education Service Centers, provide direct services to meet regional needs.

Specifically with regard to bilingual special education, the Clearinghouse has produced some valuable bibliographies, literature searches and a special publication entitled "Special Education Needs in Bilingual Programs," by Victoria Bergin.

Bilingual Education Service Centers (BESC)

Another important resource, particularly in the area of in-service training, is the national network of Bilingual Education Service Centers (BESC's). There are nineteen of these Centers located in virtually every region of the country. Although they focus their training primarily on the personnel who work in bilingual programs at the local level, they do include training related to bilingual special education. Three such BESC's are in Seattle, Washington (BESCAN); Miami, Florida (SABES); and Boulder, Colorado (BUENO).

LAU Centers

Shortly after the unanimous U.S. Supreme Court decision in Lau vs. Nichols in 1974, the federal government, through the Emergency School Assistance Act (ESAA), established a national network of desegregation assistance centers for national origin. The major goal of these nine centers is to aid public schools in resolving desegregation problems directly related to the linguistic and academic needs of national origin minority students. The objectives of these LAU Centers are to provide school districts with assistance in the:

1. Development of bilingual desegregation Lau plans;
2. Improvement of language assessment and diagnostic techniques used by districts relative to language proficiency;
3. Evaluation and selection of curriculum materials relevant to their instructional needs;
4. Development of instructional approaches to alleviate problems related to meeting the needs of Limited English Proficient students;

5. Implementation of administrative organizational techniques relevant to the alleviation of problems related to meeting the needs of Limited English Proficient students;
6. Improvement of community relations and services in order to alleviate problems related to meeting the needs of Limited English Proficient students; and
7. Response to other areas related to bilingual desegregation, as determined by individual school districts.

The LAU Centers are responsible for helping school districts under their jurisdiction to meet the needs of all LEP students, including the handicapped. Because of this, the Centers do engage in training and technical assistance related to bilingual special education.

The BUENO Multicultural Special Education Project (BUENO-MUSEPO

This project is funded through the Division of Personnel Preparation (DPP) of the Office of Special Education of the U.S. Department of Education. It is designed to create a cooperative training and technical assistance network, the Multicultural Special Education

Network (MUSEN), in the Western region for bilingual special education teacher training personnel. The participants in this project are approximately thirty DPP-funded bilingual special education-related projects in the Western region. Located at the University of Colorado, the project's four immediate goals are:

1. To provide intensive short-term training institutes for staff members of multicultural and bilingual special education teacher training projects in the Western region.
2. To provide technical assistance to the multicultural and bilingual special education teacher training project staff in the Western region.
3. To conduct applied research in the area of bilingual special education and to disseminate findings to special education teacher educators in the Western region.
4. To establish an inter- and intra-regional network of teacher trainers for bilingual special education.

Project REACHH

Funded by the Office of Special Education of the U.S. Department of Education, this is a project of the research division of the Latino Institute, Reston, Virginia. The major objective of this project is to produce a state-of-the-art monograph publication on the education of Hispanic handicapped children. The monograph focuses on identification and referral, evaluation and placement, programs and services, and information gaps and recommendations for future research.

The Bilingual Special Education Curriculum Materials Project

This is another project funded by the Office of Special Education of the U.S. Department of Education. The overall objective of this project is to identify and disseminate information about curricula that have been developed for Limited English Proficient handicapped children from Asian and Hispanic backgrounds. A resource guide is being produced, which includes a descriptive analysis of such materials for the use of special education professionals nationwide. The program is located at San Diego State University in California.

State-Funded Resources

The state of Massachusetts was the first state in the country to pass bilingual education legislation in 1973. It has also provided leadership in bilingual special education. In 1977 the Massachusetts Department of Education funded a project called the Bilingual Special Education Project (BISEP). The title was reccently changed to the Bilingual Multicultural Special Education Project (BMSEP). The effort has been part of the state's Special Education division. The objectives of the project are as follows:

1. To identify the populations to be served;
2. To identify the programs necessary to service language minority/special education students with disabilities;
3. To define personnel needs for the development and implementation of programs;
4. To identify ongoing model bilingual/special education programs and resource personnel inside and outside the local educational systems;
5. To establish a statewide bilingual special education advisory task force;
6. To identify available assessment and special teaching materials for use with potential language minority special education students;
7. To establish a central office resource center for information on testing materials and techniques, resource personnel and resource agencies to be integrated with regional centers; and

8. To develop a statewide dissemination plan for sharing expertise and materials.

These objectives were met through regional workshops, a statewide conference, the establishment of a bilingual clearinghouse, a Bilingual Resource Directory, advocacy efforts, graduate training programs, and implementation of an interdisciplinary building team model. This project continues to provide inservice training for school district personnel throughout the state. A newsletter is disseminated to practitoners on a regular basis. In addition to the other publicstions listed above, the project has also completed a report on testing procedures for the bilingual handicapped child, as well as publication on model bilingual multicultural teacher training programs within the state. Another important event sponsored by the project is an annual mini-fair where teachers can exchange ideas, materials and techniques for working with the LEP handicapped student.

The state of Illinois has also addressed the needs of the LEP handicapped by establishing a state Resource Center for exceptional bilingual children. This center is located in Arlington Heights, Illinois, and provides a variety of services for school districts and educational personnel who serve the LEP handicapped. The Center has produced several bibliographies, including one on bilingual special education assessment instruments and one on normal and abnormal language development of second language learners. This Center maintains a very comprehensive library with many entries related to bilingual special education.

Another very important dimension of the Illinois Center is its training and technical assistance function. Several workshops and courses are offered to teachers, administrators and other educational personnel who work with LEP handicapped students.

The state of California has also established a state level resource called the Special Education Resource Network (SERN). This is an in-service training effort funded through the Office of Special Education of the U.S. Department of Education. The project is involved in the training of teachers and other auxiliary personnel who work with LEP handicapped children. Included in the project's activities are the development of several bilingual education training modules.

In addition to the SERN project, the California State Department Special Education Division has also published a number of excellent research reports related to bilingual special education. Another very resourceful activity is the Second Language Summer Institute, which trains assessment personnel, resource specialists, bilingual teachers and speech pathologists in the learning of a second language as well as in better techniques for serving the LEP handicapped students of the state.

Other Resources Available through Professional Organizations

The Council for Exceptional Children (CEC), Reston, Virginia, has provided strong professional leadership in bilingual special education for over ten years. Some of CED's more notable activities in this regard include national topical conferences, such as the 1973 institute and conference on Cultural Diversity and the Exceptional Child. A key conference was the 1981 New Orleans Conference on the Bilingual Exceptional Child, sponsored by CEC. Also of particular significance was the 1982 Phoenix Bilingual Special Education Training Institute. The CEC continues to sponsor these conferences.

CED has also provided valuable information on bilingual special education through their various publication efforts, which have included special reports, monographs and numerous journal articles.

The ERIC Clearinghouse on Handicapped and Gifted Children has also disseminated numerous reports and articles related to bilingual special education.

The principal driving force behind much of the above-mentioned activities has come from the efforts of the various CED minority caucuses in cooperation with the CED Office of Minority Concerns. Through this cooperative effort, CEC has established itself as a strong advocate of bilingual special education.

Another professional organization that has begun to advocate visibly for improved services for bilingual exceptional children is the American Speech, Language and Hearing Association (ASHA). ASHA has made a concerted effort to highlight issues related to bilingualism in their professional journal. A bilingual services manual and brochure have also been produced. The organization's Office of Minority Concerns is very active in advocating improved services for LEP students. A significant project initiated by ASHA is the bilingual speech pathology and audiology in-service training project. It is called the Bilingual Language Learning Service (BLLS).

This project has been designed as a national coordinated effort to meet this need and to improve the availability and quality of speech-language pathology and audiology services rendered to bilingual/bicultural Spanish/English children. Funded by the Office of Special Education, U.S. Department of Education, the

BLLS project is intended to provide a series of 56 inservice training institutes during the second and third years of the project in the eight states, with the largest Hispanic populations: Arizona, California, Colorado, Florida, Illinois, New Mexico, New York, and Texas. The second year institutes are intended for Hispanic bilingual and bicultural speech-language pathologists, audiologists, special and regular educators, psychologists, and social workers. The third year institutes will be designed for monolingual professionals. The BLLS institutes will discuss how the bilingual child may be evaluated appropriately and treated effectively and how the speech-language pathologist and audiologist may interact with other professionals concerned with the educational well-being of the child.

As a result of BLLS training, it is anticipated that more speech-language pathologists and audiologists will provide improved services to bilingual/bicultural communicatively handicapped children. Greater consultative services will then be available to special and regular educators and these professionals will better understand contributions that communication disorders specialists can provide. It is anticipated that, as a direct result of the project, educational services to 98,000 bilingual/bicultural limited English

Proficient children will be improved through the training of 1,960 speech-language pathologists and audiologists in the Bilingual Language Learning System.

SUMMARY PROCEEDINGS
# of a
WORKING INSTITUTE on
BILINGUAL SPECIAL EDUCATION

OCTOBER 30-31, 1982

BUENO Center for Multicultural Education

University of Colorado

Boulder, Colorado

TRAINING PROJECT PROGRESS REPORTS

Progress Reports

1. Alfonso Prieto, Arizona State University

Our M.A. and Ph.D. programs are continuing. We have started bilingual special education course work and have cross-listed them. An Arizona State Department bilingual endoresement on the special education certificate is being negotiated, and will require a language proficiency exam plus course work. We have some problems in the recruitment of students.

2. Alba Ortiz, University of Texas, Austin

We have both on and off on-campus B.A., M.A. and Ph.D. program. Funding is from both Title VII and the Office of Special Education. Our training is in depth and intensive, so before we agree to provide inservice training we expect a long term commitment. We served 600 people in intensive inservices last year, and are serving 810 this year. Student recruitment is a problem for us as for others. We are infusing bilingual education and second language aquisition approaches into special courses.

3. Eloy Gonzales, University of New Mexico

Students are recruited from the B.A. bilingual education program into the graduate special education program. This year we will graduate our first Ph.D., Janice Chavez, and have 6 in progress at the Ph.D. level. There have been 20 M.A. bilingual special education graduates so far. We need to recruit 2 doctoral students.

4. Jim Yates, University of Hawaii

Our program includes pre-service, inservice, and retraining. We address the needs of the 6 major language groups in Hawaii (25 in the Pacific Basin). We have 54 undergraduates, and do a fair amount of inservice and technical assistance for school districts. The state department of education supports 30 workshops for Samoa and the Pacific. We have helped University of Guam work on a program for education of the deaf in Micronesia.

5. Barbara Loera, University of Texas, Austin

Speech pathology is our area of specialization. This is our second year of operation. Last year we conducted faculty inservice, and believe that staff support is very important. We are attempting to solidify and integrate both our academic and practicum experiences. We hope to establish a state wide advisory board and conduct a summer institute next year. We are concerned about the fluctuation in funding for bilingual special education program.

6. Judd Cunningham, Navajo Community College

In 1978 we established the Human Development Center for Developmental Disabilities. Our program is as a university affiliated facility; our support personnel training program is in its 3rd year of operation. We recruit Navajo trainees in physical therapy, occupational therapy, and speech pathology with some success. There are 14 students currently in the program. The M.A. program is field based through Utah State University. The summer program uses adjunct faculty. We are also working on raising the awareness of Navajo parents regarding the special needs of their handicapped children. We believe the field based approach is very necessary.

7. Joe Pearson, Navajo Tribe

Our teacher-training project offers an M.A. and certificate in Special Education. It is field based through the University of Northern Arizona. Our campus covers 24,000 square miles. Faculty are brought in one evening a week. There are currently 7 M.A. candidates who will complete their degrees this summer. We also have an undergraduate program with University of Arizona. There are 14 students in this program but it is not as successful of the M.A. program.

8. Pam Young, Fort Lewis College (for Linda Simmons)

We are using an infusion approach in response to the NCATE standards for multicultural education. We are doing this through a Deans Grant and by visiting classes and making recommendations for infusion.

9. Lewis Apetkar, University of Texas, El Paso

We are on the 3rd year of our project. We have adopted a training model to prepare bilingual special educators. We have identified Master teachers in the public schools who participate in our workshops. The Master teachers become models for the undergraduates. They also help the local education agencies with workshops on bilingual special education. Courses are a mix of special education and bilingual education. We have a strong parent training and advisory component. An important outcome of this is the strengthening of our undergraduate program.

10. Manuela Juarez, Texas Christian University

This is our 4th year of preparing bilingual specialists for the language impaired. We use a pragmatic and naturalistic speech approach, all in Spanish. We believe in a natural context for teaching language and work with about 200 subjects each year. We promote a way of diagnosis which doesn't utilize formal tests. We have 8 to 10 students in our program each year and have not had too many difficulties in recruitment thus far. We are concerned about the institutionalization of our program.

11. Elsa Brizzi, Los Angeles County Schools

The LA County School system is made up of 95 school districts with over 50% minority/bilingual population. Our bilingual special education teacher training is through California State University. The language groups involved are Spanish, Chinese, and Korean. We have also produced a resource guide for teachers and aides working together with minority children. This cuts across specialty lines, i.e. covers special education, bilingual education, and all grade levels. We are also working on a career ladder and involving parents and community members.

12. Bill Schinder, San Antonio Community College

In 1978 we received a grant from Vocational Education. Our program emphasis is preparing bilingual paraprofessionals working with speech pathologists. We currently have 123 students and have 19 bilingual therapy aides under the direction of speech therapists. We have developed special training materials with lower readability levels without diminishing content. The reading level increases throughout the materials. Our program is going to be replicated throughout the state. We are concerned about the transferability of our courses to IHE's and the certification of our paraprofessionals through Human Service agencies.

13. Ed Garett, New Mexico State University

We offer an M.A. in Speech and Language Pathology and Audiology. We have always been committed to bilingualism, and many years ago instituted a course in this area. We also have scattered pieces throughout the program on communication disorders and bilingualism. The payoff is in the practicum where students actually work with bilingual students. Approximately 10 M.A.'s graduate each year. The public schools in our area are involved with bilingual education. They are especially concerned with the severely handicapped bilingual. We have 17 to 18 undergraduate Hispanics. One fourth of our graduate students are Hispanic. We place graduates in rehabilitation centers and early childhood programs.

14. Roberta Trujillo, New Mexico State University (for Stephen Stile)

    Ours is a preservice- inservice training for educators of preschool handicapped children. Our program is only for New Mexico early childhood educators.

15. Sherrie Crysler, Central Washington University

    We are training teachers in Spanish and preparing professionals and paraprofessionals to work with handicapped children from migrant families.

Bilingual/Bicultural Speech-Language Pathology Project

The Program in Communication Disorders at The University of Texas at Austin has begun its second year in offering graduate students in speech-language pathology the opportunity to specialize in bilingual speech-language pathology.

The project is specifically designed for students who are planning to work with bilingual (Hispanic), communicatively disordered individuals. Students in this project will learn to:

1. Recognize the impact of cultural and socio-economic differences on the communication abilities of bilingual populations.
2. Identify, assess and remediate communication disorders in bilingual populations.
3. Provide training to other personnel, thus increasing expertise and resources available to serve this population.

An increase in student enrollment by 68% from 1981 has occurred in the project. This increase appears to be attributed largely to the availability of student stipends. Continuation of funding is vital for attracting superior new students who must be willing to supplement the regular speech-language pathology graduate degree with the academic and clinical training required for this specialization.

The major obstacle has been the irregularities in funding. As a result, the following areas have been chosen as priority items for the current funding year.

a. Establishing a permanent funding source for student support.
b. Solidifying the integration of academic and practicum components of the project.

c. Forming a statewide advisory board.

d. Establishing summer institute programs so that professionals outside the Austin area can receive this type of training.

BILINGUAL SPECIAL EDUCATION PROGRAM
UNIVERSITY OF NEW MEXICO

UPDATE

The Bilingual Special Education component was in its third year cycle this past year before meeting with disaster and being cut completely. Up to this past year we had trained 20 masters level special educators of which six had likewise completed the Bilingual Diagnostician Program and are currently serving in that capacity.

One out of the six doctoral level students has completed her program and is currently completing her dissertation scheduled for completion this June. The others, two of which are currently funded through Title VII and still two years from completion, and three attending part-time should be completed within the next two years.

We are now in the process of re-submitting a new grant and including a bilingual diagnostic component to it since BEH did fund such a program this past year.

We are likewise searching for an additional staff member who must be either Mexican-American or Native American in order to strengthen the bilingual component of our department.

Our department also reactivated our undergraduate program which had been dropped some four years ago. The need for special education teachers, especially for bilingual special education teachers in this state has grown considerably as demonstrated by pressures from throughout the state to reactivate our undergrad program. This will be one of the greatest sources of bilingual special educators at the graduate level since in the past approximately one-half of these students have been from minority backgrounds.

I am actively recruiting two doctoral level students for the Fall '83 semester to be funded under Title VII at the rate of $500.00 per month with additional funds for books and professional activities.

Dr. ELOY GONZALES

TRAINING MASTER TEACHERS AS ROLE MODELS
FOR
HISPANIC SPECIAL EDUCATORS

by

Lewis S. Aptekar, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor
Department of Educational Psychology
The University of Texas at El Paso

Training Master Teachers as Role Models for Hispanic Special Educators

With a population of almost 500,000 El Paso is the fourth largest city in Texas, and the El Paso Independent School District (EPISD) is one of the state's seven largest school districts. Among El Paso's unique features are its proximity to the Mexican border, and its high concentration of a Mexican-American population.

It is five hundred miles to another Texas university; within that distance a million Spanish sepaking people live. Seventy percent of the 103,026 students registered at the Region XIX Service Center are Hispanic; 11.95 percent of these students receive special education, and 70 percent of those are Hispanic.

Because of this setting, and because the University of Texas at El Paso (UTEP) is the only degree-granting and certifying institution in all of southwest Texas, it is in a position to become a leader in training teachers for bilingual populations.

Over 2/3 of the special education students in Region XIX have linguistic differences contribuiting to their demise in school. Ethnic and linguistic minority children have traditionally been neglected and poorly served despite the spirit of the PL-94-142. As part of a programmatic effort to supply services to special children who speak English as a second language, UTEP has established a bilingual/bicultural program, and a Special Education program with a bilingual-bicultural emphasis, both programs are staffed with outstanding bilingual people.

These programs develop bilingual/bicultural professionals who will be able to identify, assess, and educate handicapped children and serve their parents. The overall objective of the bilingual/bicultural special education professional development effort is not to create a new field in special education or in bilingual/bicultural education, but to integrate two fields that will overlap when providing programs for ethnic-linguistic handicapped minorities.

There are two major components of our preservice project at UTEP. One is the production of bilingual Master special education teachers. These people are chosen from a pool of certified special education teachers who are bilingual. Then they are trained in our Master Teacher Workshop, which is designed to develop a field-based bilingual/bicultural, special education practicum for teacher education students. Specifically, the course objectives to Master Teachers Workshop are:

1. To present to special education teachers who are bilingual various educational, cultural, and linguistic information pertinent to the bilingual special education child, and
2. To develop master teaching skills in the special education teachers chosen for this project through instruction and supervised clinical experiences.

Following achievment of these competencies, the Master Teachers are used as supervisor's for the field placement experience of our pre-service students.

The second component of our program is pre-service education. Fifty percent of the training is conducted in practicum. Students work under the direction of Master Teachers who are supervised by the director of the project. The students work in public school classrooms with Spanish speaking students, the UTEP kindergarten which bilingual and special education students attend, and the University's special education clinical center, which also provides on-site training experience while servicing bilingual special education children.

The following competencies will be expected of the pre-service graduates:

1. The understanding and use of various educational and curricular materials appropriate to the bilingual special education child.

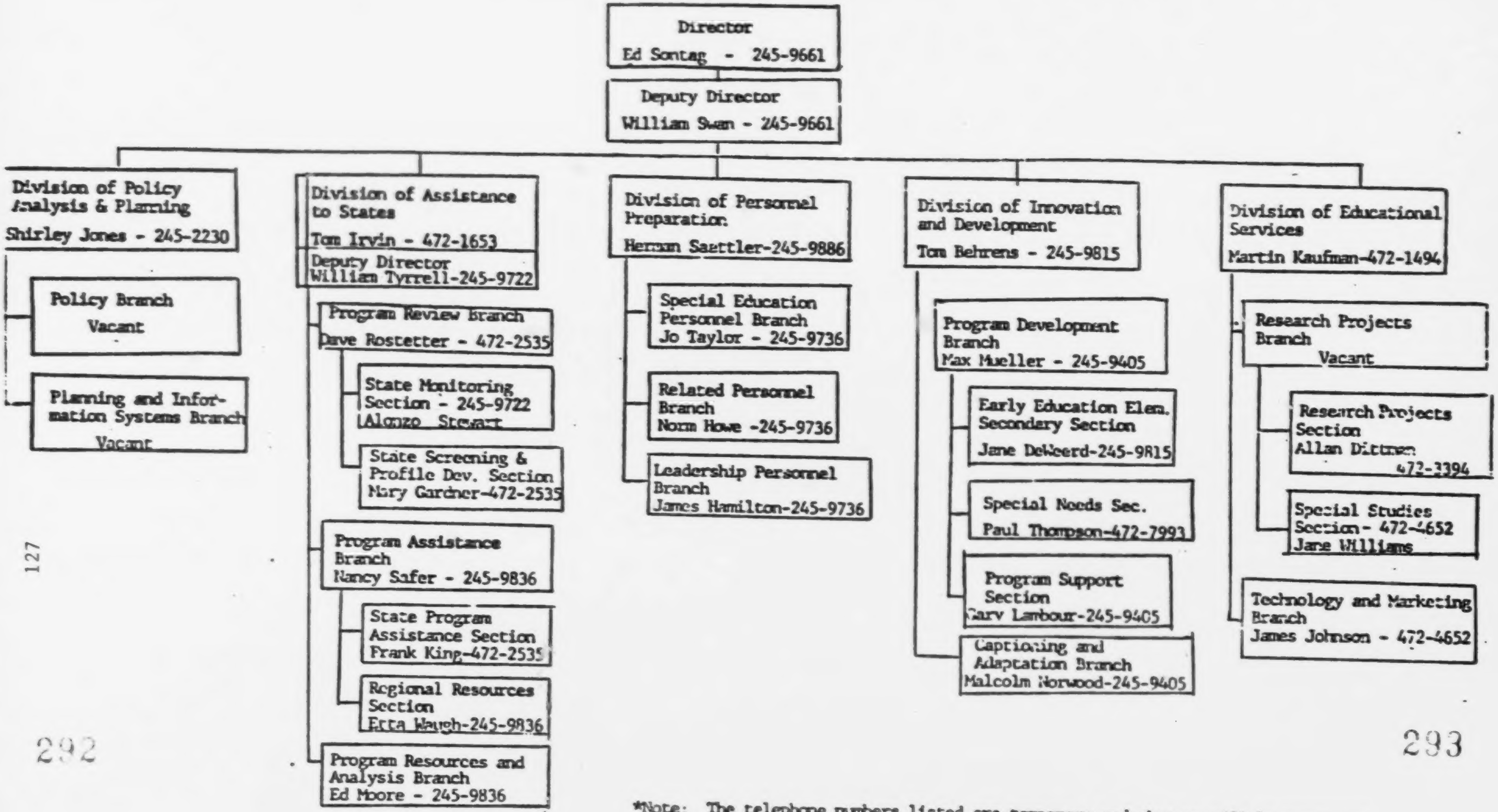
2. Development of teaching skills for the bilingual special child.
3. Students will have the ability to utilize the appropriate non-discriminatory tests for the bilingual special education child.
4. Students will develop their own skills of task analysis of curriculum problems.
5. Students will understand and be able to manage various behavioral problems of the bilingual special education child.
6. Students will learn to understand the various role groups: teachers, administrators, and parents, and how these role groups function in the educational and social learning of the bilingual special education child.

ACCOMPLISHMENTS TO DATE:

1. We have trained 25 Master Teachers who are working in five school districts, in all areas of special education. Each year these teachers impact over 300 Spanish speaking students in special education.
2. We have conducted a workshop for the special education administrators of six school districts, to teach them about the current laws and special needs of bilingual special education students.
3. We have trained, in a specialized workshop, 25 pre-service teachers in working with parents.
4. We have impacted the pre-service curricula for bilingual certification.
5. We have impacted the pre-service curricula for special education certification.
6. We have developed specialized materials appropriate for the bilingual special education child.
7. We have published and presented appropriate research articles.

SPECIAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS REORGANIZATION

Effective 10/4/82


Director
Ed Sontag - 245-9661
Deputy Director
William Swan - 245-9661
Division of Policy Analysis & Planning
Shirley Jones - 245-2230
Policy Branch
Vacant
Planning and Information Systems Branch
Vacant
Division of Assistance to States
Tom Irvin - 472-1653
Deputy Director
William Tyrrell-245-9722
Program Review Branch
Dave Rostetter - 472-2535
State Monitoring Section - 245-9722
Alonzo Stewart
State Screening & Profile Dev. Section
Mary Gardner-472-2535
Program Assistance Branch
Nancy Safer - 245-9836
State Program Assistance Section
Frank King-472-2535
Regional Resources Section
Erta Waugh-245-9836
Program Resources and Analysis Branch
Ed Moore - 245-9836
Division of Personnel Preparation
Herman Saettler-245-9886
Special Education Personnel Branch
Jo Taylor - 245-9736
Related Personnel Branch
Norm Howe -245-9736
Leadership Personnel Branch
James Hamilton-245-9736
Division of Innovation and Development
Tom Behrens - 245-9815
Program Development Branch
Max Mueller - 245-9405
Early Education Elem. Secondary Section
Jane DeWeerd-245-9815
Special Needs Sec.
Paul Thompson-472-7993
Program Support Section
Gary Lambour-245-9405
Captioning and Adaptation Branch
Malcolm Norwood-245-9405
Division of Educational Services
Martin Kaufman-472-1494
Research Projects Branch
Vacant
Research Projects Section
Allan Dittmer
472-3394
Special Studies Section - 472-4652
Jane Williams
Technology and Marketing Branch
James Johnson - 472-4652

*Note: The telephone numbers listed are temporary and changes will be necessary.

CHAPTER V

Curriculum and Instructional Methods for Exceptional Bilingual Children

Alba A. Ortiz, Ph.D.
The University of Texas at Austin

Both federal and state laws include safeguards against discriminatory practices in the provision of services for handicapped bilingual students and help assure these children receive appropriate educational opportunities. Perusal of literature associated with service delivery for limited English proficient (LEP) populations highlights that much attention has been focused on assessment and placement practices, parental involvement, due process, and so forth. Little attention has been given specifically to curricula, instructional methods, and the content and processes of educational planning for students who meet eligibility criteria for both special education and special language programs.

Educators find themselves at a loss as to how to tailor programs for handicapped LEP students so they are appropriate, not only in terms of specific handicapping conditions, but also in terms of linguistic, cultural, and other student background variables. The complexity of this task has created reluctance on the part of school districts to provide special eduation services for LEP populations for fear they will not be able to defend decisions made relative to placement and educational services provided. On the other hand, educational programs for students who are in special education placements frequently fail to produce expected results because they are not linguistically and culturally relevant.

Recently, Chinn (1979a) conducted extensive searches of literature associated with special curricula for exceptional culturally different children. These searches failed to yield curricula specifically designed for this population. Publications addressed strategies and approaches appropriate to culturally diverse children but were not unique to exceptional children.

This paper again examines literature on curriculum and instructional methods for handicapped bilingual children. Five questions guided the literature review:

1. Is there research to support current practices in special education service delivery for exceptional bilingual populations?

2. Is there a need to develop new curricula, methods, and materials for handicapped bilingual children?

3. Is there empirical evidence that indicates that certain methods of instruction result in higher academic achievement/performance than do others?

4. What instructional arrangements are now being utilized for instruction of exceptional bilingual students?

5. Is there evidence favoring bilingual education versus special education placement for handicapped bilingual children?

In general, literature on curriculum and instruction for exceptional bilingual or limited English proficient (LEP) students continues to focus on student characteristics which affect school achievement and on competencies for teachers who serve exceptional LEP students. When recommendations for educational interventions are provided, they are deduced from literature in related disciplines such as bilingual education or special education. There is a paucity of research specific to curriculum and instructional methods for linguistically diverse populations with special education needs.

Cultural Relevance in Curriculum

Perhaps the most common theme in literature addressing the needs of minority students is that poor achievement can be attributed to content, materials, and strategies which are not culturally relevant (Ortiz, 1981; Almanza & Mosley, 1980; Chinn, 1979a; Plata, 1979; Rodriguez, Cole, Stile, & Gallegos, 1979; Diggs, 1974; Jaramillo, 1974). School programs continue to reflect a melting pot idealogy which has as its basis a belief that people should strive to be as similar as possible and that the norms for thinking and behaving are embodied in the culture of the white middle class (Jaramillo, 1974; Ortiz & Yates, in press). However, significant factors work against the assimilation of "visible" minorities whose traits make them easily recognizable by virtue of skin color, language, and/or other unique cultural attributes. Members of the dominant society perceive these individuals as different and, consequently, deviant, to the extent that they question whether the group is worthy of becoming a part of mainstream society. On the other hand, ethnic groups share a deep commitment to maintenance of their cultural heritage, thereby rejecting the melting pot ideal. School programs operating under a deficit model, in which differences are interpreted as deficits, will likely have disproportionate numbers of linguistically or culturally different students who experience school-related problems and become potential candidates for special education. Because referral is likely to result in placement, many normal minorities are being served in special education programs, particularly in language-related categories (Garcia, 1983; Maldonado, 1983; Ortiz & Yates, 1983).

In recent years, there has been increased awareness of the contributions of diverse groups of immigrants to the development of this society and a growing acceptance of the concept of cultural pluralism. Instead of eliminating cultural differences, individuals are encouraged to share customs, traditions, lifestyles, language, and other unique traits. Instructional programs based on a cultural pluralism model are not designed to compensate for diversity but, rather, to enhance and enrich students' experiences. School programs operating under this model are less likely to label minority children as handicapped. Programs offered accomodate student differences and thus increase the likelihood that children will succeed in school and will not require remedial intervention.

While there is general agreement that adapting curricula and materials to make them cultually relevant is a step toward reducing the discrepancy between the characteristics of the student and those of school programs, there is disagreement about the nature of cultural differences which must be considered, their distribution within a given groups, and specifically how instruction should be adapted to take these factors into account (Henderson, 1980). In response to the observation that stereotypes, omissions, and distortions of information about ethnic or racial groups are common to school texts and materials, it is recommended that instructional curricula and materials be developed or adapted to incorporate the history, heritage, traditions, and lifestyles of diverse cultural groups. However, when emphasis is given to traditional aspects of culture, instructional materials may inadvertantly reinforce the very stereotypes and misperceptions educators wish to eliminate. Teachers and other educators need to learn as much as possible about the culture of students, accept differences, and create learning environments and curricula which are relevant to the student and consistent with expectations and desires of parents, community, and public policy (Plata, 1979). Careful study of the idiosyncracies of ethnic groups, coupled with sound special education techniques, provide a basic foundation for meeting the needs of exceptional minorities (Chinn, 1979b).

Henderson (1980) provides an overview of basic concepts related to cultural diversity and stereotypes associated with cultural and social variables and their influence on student performance. He concludes that the only variables consistently related to achievement are: (a) level of student involvement in academic tasks, (b) the nature of teacher-pupil interactions, and (c) internal perceptions of control.

Locus of Control and Learned Helplessness

The concept of locus of control, originally formulated by Rotter (1966), describes a person's perceptions of the relationship between actions and outcomes. "Internals" believe they are in control of their lives and that work and effort will result in reward. "Externals" believe outcomes are determined by luck, chance, fate, or powerful others who control their destinies in random fashion. Locus of control appears to be partially a function of socioeconomic status as frequently poor or economically disadvantaged individuals are likely to demonstrate characteristics of externals (Vasquez, 1975; Henderson, 1980; Ortiz & Yates, in press).

Vasquez (1975) summarized literature on the relationship of locus of control to student performance and described the effects of internality and externality on school performance:

1. Self-reliance. Externals are dependent upon others to assist with completion of assigned tasks. In classes where students are expected to work independently, externals are at a disadvantage while internals are matched with the structure of the independent classroom.

2. Level of aspiration. Internals are better able to plan and implement strategies which yield desired outcomes, thus enhancing the possibility of successful achievement. Externals often fail to see the relationship between actions and outcomes and therefore have a tendency to ignore planning or strategizing.

3. Expectations of success. Internals attribute success to their own behavior, ability, skill, and effort. They are able to change their behavior or level of effort and to move actions in directions more likely to ensure success. Analysis of their own traits, abilities, and attributes brings a closer congruence between goal aspiration and goal attainment. On the other hand, externals do not appear to profit from a particular experience, even with feedback, as they do not use analytical skills to determine relationships between behaviors and outcomes. In the classroom, the external is less likely to profit from routine feedback and ordinary reporting procedures. Without specification and direction

from teacher or peer, the external remains in the dark as to the reasons for success or failure.

4. Achievement motivation. The external individual is often judged to be lacking in motivation or desire for achievement. Internal children are likely to have externally visible desire for achievement and are more likely to meet the aspirations and expectations of teachers. The perceived lack of motivation and effort of the externally directed student will produce frustration and irritation for the teacher who is likely to be internal.

5. Intensity of work. Externals tend to be judged as conformist and willing to accept imposed structure whether such structure produces rewards or negative sanctions. Ego strength is not involved as the external individual is unlikely to reflect upon experiences as either successful or not successful.

6. Performance under skill conditions. Internals are challenged by, and approach logically, situations which require display of skill. For example, in test-taking, the internal individual is likely to systematically analyze differences in difficulty of items and to move to completion of easier items first. The external individual, may recognize differences in items, but begins with the first item and works in sequence until time is exhausted or s/he is frustrated.

An external orientation may have devastating effects upon achievement of minority children. Externals will have difficulty processing information and profiting from instruction presented from a framework of independence and intrinsic motivation. Additionally, they are unlikely to analyze feedback accurately to determine how to change their behavior to become more successful within the school system. Instead, external children begin to perceive themselves as helpless, unable to control what happens to them, and see aversive situations as insurmountable. They fail to perceive their own effort as an important cause of success or failure. This sets into play teacher perceptions and expectations which maintain the cycle of failure and reinforce the learned helplessness (Henderson, 1980).

There is a striking parallel between the characteristics of children with external locus of control orientations and those attributes associated with learning disabled students. Consequently, guidance is needed to determine when children are experiencing school-related difficulties because of lack of compatibility between teaching and learning styles or when such difficulties would best be attributed to a handicapping condition. Guidance is also needed to help educators capture accurately children's cognitive styles in order to prevent the stereotyping of children and to facilitate the selection of appropriate interventions.

Henderson (1980) suggests that teachers (a) provide external students with opportunities to set goals and to help determine their own activities. Cognitively oriented attribution retraining and environmental control and self-regulation programs can be used teach cause-effect relationships. Henderson stresses that children must experience genuine feelings of personal successs and social competence within the total school setting rather than only in isolated therapeutic or resource settings.

According to Feuerstein (1982), children from economically, and psychologically, impoverished homes function at a generally low level because they have been denied appropriate mediated learning environments. His Instrumental Enrichment (FIE) program is designed to mediate experiences by making the individual more receptive and sensitive to internal and external sources of stimultion. Feuerstein's approach is directed, not only at remediation of specific behaviors and skills, but also at changing the person's manner of interacting with, acting on, or responding to sources of information. Tasks are structured in such a way that they require the student to (a) use higher mental processes; (b) develop intrinsic motivation through formation of habits; and (c) contribute actively to the organization, restructuring, discovery, and application of produced relationships. In essence, what the student is doing is learning to learn. The FIE has excellent potential to help children overcome learned helplessness and become effective learners.

Teacher-Pupil Interactions

Teacher expectations are the inferences or predictions teachers make about the present and future academic achievement and general classroom behavior of their pupils (Good & Brophy, 1973). In a landmark longitudinal study conducted by Rist (1970), the effects of teacher expectations were dramatically illustrated. Specifically, the effects of student characteristics on teacher-pupil interaction patterns were documented.

Observational data (Rist, 1970) indicated that students assigned to three groups were distinguishable on the basis of at least four criteria: physical appearance, social behavior, language used (standard English versus Black dialect), and certain sociological characteristics known to the teacher (size of family, parental income, etc.). Differential expectations for children were readily manifested in the teacher's behavior toward them. The children at table one (the neatest, cleanest children) received preferential treatment. They were given more opportunities to answer questions and to interact with the teacher. They were also rewarded with greater praise and less criticism than children at the other tables. Students seated at tables two and three received less contact with the teacher and, consequently, less instruction. Hence, they were less involved in classroom activities. Rist followed eighteen of these thirty children after they entered the same first grade. Students in the low achieving groups in kindergarten (those seated at table three) were retained in essentially the same position. Followup in second grade demonstrated that children were maintained in essentially the same grouping pattern.

Jackson and Cosca (1974) surveyed 494 classrooms located in the southwestern United States and measured whether the ethnicity of students influenced the quality and quantity of teacher verbal interactions. In particular, the possible disparity between Mexican American and Anglo children was emphasized. The authors reported that teachers praised or encouraged Anglo students 35 percent more than they did Mexican American children and accepted and used the ideas of Anglo students 40 percent more often than they did those of Mexican Americans. It was concluded that Mexican American children received substantially fewer positive interactions with their teachers.

When teachers hold positive perceptions and expections, they provide increased quality of educational opportunity (Good & Brophy, 1973). Individuals labeled underachievers may become victims of lowered expectations for achievement and these expectations may negatively effect instructional opportunities. Conversely, as the quality of instruction is diminished, over time, the quality of instruction alone could explain differences in achievement levels of children. Such a conclusion is significant given evidence which indicates that minorities lag far behind their peers in academic achievement (Brown, Rosen, Hill, & Olivas, 1980).

Research associated with teacher-pupil interaction patterns and teaching styles and behaviors has not routinely included handicapped students, much less the handicapped LEP child. The majority of studies of exceptional individuals focus on the effects of the handicapping condition on teacher perceptions, expectations, and interactions. Research is needed to determine the effects of differential interaction and teaching style patterns on the achievement of LEP populations, specifically focusing on the interaction effects of linguistic/cultural diversity and handicapping conditions.

Teaching Styles and Behaviors

While much of the literature offers contradictory findings associated with teacher behavior and teaching styles, Silvernail (1979) was able to find specific support for the following:

1. Time spent on instruction is significantly related to achievement for low socioeconomic status students.

2. Task-oriented behavior correlates positively with pupil learning and, consequently, can be viewed as part of an effective teaching style.

3. Strategies which challenge students to do their best and which encourage group membership and cohesiveness will be particularly effective in promoting pupil achievement.

4. When classroom interaction patterns indicate that pupils have opportunities to express their ideas, and when their ideas are incorporated into learning activities, pupils seem to learn more and to develop more positive attitudes toward the teacher and learning.

5. Teaching styles which include questioning behavior are effective although there is little literature which would support specific types of questions, patterns of asking questions, etc.

6. Introductory comments by teachers, reviews, and presentations of content-relevant information are effective in promoting learning.

7. Positive comments encourage learning.

Studies of specific approaches to teaching (direct versus indirect teaching styles; use of advance organizers, etc.) are inconclusive. The optimal level for a particular teaching style differs depending on the nature of the task, time factors, teacher flexibility, etc.

Preliminary findings of the Significant Bilingual Instructional Features study (Tikunoff, 1982) indicate that teaching behaviors of bilingual education teachers compare favorably with literature on effective instruction and particularly with studies which indicate that students make the most significant learning gains when they receive a great deal of instruction from, and interaction with, the teacher. According to Tikunoff (1982), during effective billingual instruction, teachers:(a) emphasize basic skills; (b) communicate clearly and get students engaged in task completion; (c) monitor students' work and provide frequent and immediate feedback; (d) organize instructional activities which create, reinforce, and communicate task and instructional demands; (e) mediate instruction using both English and the native language; (f) respond to and use cultural clues; and (g) focus on developing students' first and second language skills. Under these conditions, LEP students were successful in decoding and understanding task expectations and new information, participated productively, maintained engagement in tasks in order to complete them, and knew how to obtain accurate feedback. This was evidenced by high academic learning time, the time a student spends in a particular content area engaged in learning tasks with a high degree of accuracy. Approximately 3/4 of the time allocated to basic skills instruction was deemed to be academic learning time for LEPs (Tikunoff, 1982).

Second Language Acquisition

Children acquire, as opposed to learn, language by understanding messages, not by focusing on the form or anaylzing linguistic structures as is frequently done in language teaching (Krashen, 1982). They understand language that contains structures they do not know by utilizing context, extra-linguistic information, and knowledge of the world. Consequently, the more the children know about the topic being discussed, the greater the likelihood that they will develop second language skills.

While conscious learning of language (e.g. knowledge of rules) allows children to monitor and to correct their own utterances, the key to language acquisition is that students receive comprehensible input. This input does not have to be grammatically sequenced, but must be interesting, relevant, and provided in sufficient quantity (Krashen, 1982). Several other factors affect the language acquisition process. The less anxious, more motivated, more self-confident students experience greater success in second language learning. Those students who do not reject their own language and culture experience greater success than do those who have negative attitudes toward their own group (Gardner and Lambert, 1972).

Based on their studies of second language acquisition, Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982) provide the following guidelines for teaching English as a second language:

1. Maximize the student's exposure to natural communication.

2. Focus on the message being conveyed, not the linguistic form of the message.

3. Incorporate a silent period at the beginning of the instructional program so that students will be able to listen to the second language without being pressured to speak it.

4. Encourage and create situations in which students can interact with native speakers of the language.

5. Use concrete referents to make the new language understandable to beginning students.

6. Devise specific techniques to relax students and to protect their egos.

7. Learn the motivations of students and incorporate these into lessons.

8. Create an atmosphere where students are not embarrassed by their errors.

9. Do not refer to, or revert to, the student's native language when teaching the second language. To do so, may create a situation in which the student, instead of focusing attention on the second language, simply waits for the teacher to repeat utterances in the native language. Under

these circumstances, motivation for second language learning may be negatively affected.

According to Krashen (1982), language acquisition takes place best when input is provided that is: (a) comprehensible; (b) interesting and relevant; (c) not grammatically sequenced; and (4) provided in sufficient quantity. He uses these criteria to evaluate methods for language teaching. Audio-lingual, grammar-translation, and cognitive code methods do not do an effective job of encouraging subconscious language acquisition. Methods such as total physical response (Asher, 1972), suggestopedia (Bushman & Madsen, 1976), and the natural approach (Terrell, 1977) seem to be the most effective because they provide more comprehensible input.

There may be special circumstances under which these variables outweigh the general rule that children must be taught in a language they understand. For example, the wishes of parents who do not want their child to receive native language instruction must be honored. As a guiding principle, however, Macauley (1980) offers sound advice: "The golden rule is for everyone to be very cautious in trying to change the course of a child's linguistic development. In particular, if what adults are doing appears to be making the child unhappy or reducing thelamount of language produced, then there is something wrong with that approach" (p. 58).

Bilingual Instruction

Baca (1980) provides a historical overview of litigation and legislation related to the education of LEP children and establishes a strong case for bilingual education as a sound instructional method for educating LEP students. Studies cited indicate that bilinguals are better able to deal with abstract aspects of language, have greater cognitive flexibility, and may have greater linguistic sensitivity. Albert and Obler (1978) state that, rather than being cognitively or academically impaired, chidlren learning two languages may have skills superior to those of monolinguals.

Krashen (1982) also examines alternatives for educating limited English proficient students. Contrary to popular belief, increased exposure to English does not improve or hasten second language acquisition. Consequently, submersion or "sink or swim" programs in which children are simply placed in the same classroom with native English speakers and the regular curriculum is followed will not be successful. Adding English as a Second Language instruction to the submersion program will help but the most effective program is one in which subject matter is taught in the native language and a source of comprehensible English input is provided. Cummins (1982) suggests that bilingual instruction is more effective than English only instruction in promoting English academic skills and that native language skills can be developed without negative repercussions for the learning of English. As a matter of fact, the child's proficiency in his/her native language determines the level of success in learning English. Children who are proficient in their native language will be more successful in learning English than will students who lack proficiency in the primary language.

A common misconception is that handicapped children who have limited English proficiency, or who are bilingual, should be taught in English. Educators reason that that if exceptional children have difficulty developing language skills, they will require more time than others to master a language and will be confused by bilingual instruction. It is thought to be in the best interest of students to provide instruction in one language and the choice is usually English, the language of the larger society (Ortiz, in press). Yet for many children, such reasoning ignores a critical variable: the learner's ability to understand what is presented is the basis for most learning (Macauley, 1980).

There is little empirical evidence on the efficacy of native language instruction or bilingual instruction with handicapped LEP students. For the most part, support for this approach is found in reports of federally funded programs serving linguistically different students with special education needs. The exact nature of linguistic interventions are rarely specified. Several studies document student improvement or gains in achievement as a result of native language, English as a Second Language, or bilingual education strategies with handicapped LEP students:

1. Askins (1978) found that students involved in the Responsive Environment Early Education Program (REEEP) made significant gains in language development in English and in Spanish and in school readiness. Sixty percent of the students scored better than estimated/expected on a test of English; forty percent scored better than estimated/expected on a test of Spanish.

2. In a study of intellectually and physically handicapped children, Sanua (1976) found that 78% of the subjects showed progress in reading and 74% showed gains in self-concept when instruction was conducted bilingually.

3. Baca (1974) found that informal and structured bilingual interventions resulted in improvement of attitudes and achievement among 15 mildly handicapped students.

4. Weiss (1980) found dramatic language related learning improvement among 3-5 year old handicapped childen participating in the INreal REactive Language (INREAL) program. Longitudinal data showed that students who had participated in the project had less need for followup remedial services and fewer grade retentions.

5. McConnell (1981) describes the use of Individualized Bilingual Instruction (IBI). Academic areas and oral language were taught in English and in Spanish. Gains for both high and low ability children were educationally and statistically significant.

6. Observations, interviews with participating teachers, and data from a survey questionnaire (Muller, 1975) indicated that, by using a bilingual approach, bilingual mentally retarded students were able to improve communication skills, develop better teacher/student rapport, and through individualization were able to improve study skills.

Although there are many questions regarding bilingual development to be resolved by future research, it seems that bilingual proficiency is not beyond the capabiity of handicapped children. A policy of single language instruction may ignore linguistic skills which are important to the child and to his/her community (Greenlee, 1981).

Research is needed to provide a framework for choosing the language of instruction for handicapped LEP students. Johnson and Krug (1980) suggest that adequate instruments and models have yet to be developed to capture the complex relationship between first and second language acquisition or to describe the relationship between variables such as attitudes and motivations of second language leaners to attained language proficiency. The task of sorting out these relationships becomes even more complex with the addition of the variable of handicapping condition. Nonetheless careful consideration must be given to factors which might influence the child's performance and affect language choice, including (a) parent choice or preference; (b)student choice or preference; (c) student age; (d) length of time in this country; (e) type and severity of handicapping condition; (f) language aptitude; (g) general intellectual abilities; (h) motivation; (i) attitudes toward speakers of English and toward instruction in English or the other language; (j) time allocated to language teaching and to instructional tasks; (l) performance or progress as a result of instruction in a given language; and (m) availability of bilingual personnel.

Because of the multiplicity of variables which must be considered in choosing the language of instruction, a signficant contribution to the field would be the development of a framework for weighting these variables in decision-making. Secada (in press) offers a framework for choosing the language of instruction for hearing impaired Hispanics which includes the major options available for limited English proficient students (use of English or the native language only; use of two languages, the native language and ESL; exclusive use of the native langage) and the major program options for the hearing impaired (exclusive use of oral English; a mixture of oral and manual communication; exclusive use of the manual mode). By increasing program options, students might, for example, receive content instruction in the native language, English as a second language training to enhance transfer of oral skills from the native language to English, as well as training in total communication to facilitate mainstreaming. Secada cautions that programs that develop English oral or sign skills to the exclusion of students' home language risk confusing and alienating them from their community. He also states that his framework is a first attempt to address the question, "Under what conditions should what language be used in educating a specific kind of hearing impaired student from a specific kind of non-English speaking home?" (p.15). The same question must be asked for all categories of handicapping conditions.

Educational Implications of Hemispheric Research

Studies of cerebral organization for language suggest that language is organized in the brain of bilingual individuals in a manner that is different from that of monolinguals. Research with monolingual subjects has indicated that the left hemisphere is dominant for language in most individuals; studies of bilinguals suggest that the right hemisphere plays a major role in the learning of a second language (Albert & Obler, 1978). Early emphasis on one hemisphere can possibly lead to permanent cognitive deficits.

Rubenzer (1980) suggests that, instead of focusing on improving curricula, emphasis should be given to increasing students receptivity (meta-skills) to learning experiences and materials. In the classroom, balanced approaches to teaching should be utilized, teaching toward both the left and the right hemispheres. While the brain is "bifunctional", the most productive and creative intellectual functioning is theorized to occur when there is cooperation between hemispheres. Educational experiences specifically designed to enhance right brain processing also improve performance on left hemisphere tasks. Shifts in the quality and focus of attention can be consciously elicited and the most advantageous cognitive and affective modes can be consciously attained apropo to the stage of problem solving at hand. Patterns found to best facilitate problem solving can then be practiced.

Coordination Between Bilingual and Special Education

There are many similarities between the procedures used by bilingual education and by special education in designing educational programs for eligible students. Despite this, there is little evidence of interface and interaction between these complementary disciplines. Given the complexity of the task of educating handicapped LEP students, there are several areas in which coordination could improve service delivery for this population (Ortiz, 1983).

Decision-making committees. Providing appropriate services for LEP students requires (a) prevention of inaccurate classification of students as handicapped and, (b) for those students who are indeed handicapped, provision of educational interventions which are appropriate given language, culture, socioeconomic status, and other background characteristics. Special education committees should include individuals who are able to distinguish lingusitic, cultural, and other student differences from handicappping conditions or should have access to someone with such expertise.

It may be more helpful, as well as cost-effective, to combine special education and bilingual education committees which make identification, placement, or service delivery decisions related to LEP students. In the referral process, for example, data collected by special language program personnel (e.g., teacher observations, grades, achievment test results, etc.) are very similar to that collected by special education personnel. For LEP students being considered for special education placement, joint meetings would assure the presence of a bilingual eductor or ESL specilist who could assist in interpretation of data and who could compare student performance in both the native language and English. Such interpretation is critical in that the team must document that the handicapping condition exists in the native language and not just in English. Additionally, bilingual personnel could be of great assistance in facilitating parental involvement in committee deliberations and decisions about their child's program.

Assessment. Because of the critical shortage of bilingual psychologists and diagnosticians, assessment of LEP students continues to be a major obstacle to appropriate identification and placement of handicapped bilingual students. Until such personnel are available, it will be important to solicit assistance from bilingual educators in order to provide native language assessments and to increase the likelihood of accurate diagnoses. Bilingual educators, appropriately trained, for example, could be effective interpreters in testing situations. Problems inherent in using interpreters, of course, must be recognized and specifically communicated to recipients of assessment data. Bilingual educators can also provide comprehensive assessments of learning competencies observed or assessed informally both in English and in the native language. It is this type of data that is critical to the development of individual education plans.

Individual Education Plans for LEP Students

Adelman (1970) suggests a two step process for educating students experiencing achievement problems. The first step is to personalize the instructional environment so compatibility between student characteristics and teaching/learning styles is attained. The second step requires that instruction be carefully sequenced in such a way that the student is ready to learn content or concepts presented.

Personalizing Instruction. In Figure 1, Lerman and Cortez (1978) provide a comprehensive model for discovering and meeting the needs of handicapped children from dual language backgrounds. While this model is specific to the hearing impaired, the variables considered are generally applicable to all categories of handicapping condition and provide an excellent framework for personalizing instruction.

Insert Figure 1 About Here.

Lerman and Cortez (1978) provide a detailed discussion of important areas to consider in assuring that educational programs are appropriate for the a child, not only in terms of his/her handicapping condition but also in terms of language, cultural, and other background variables. These areas include the following:

I. Language status of the child
  A. Language used by the child
  B. Child's mode of communication in language(s) used.
  C. Competence in languages(s) and modes
II. Social-emotional status of the child (e.g., social interaction, success, school adjustment)
III. Culture
  A. Background and family (e.g., identification with national origin, status in country of origin)
  B. Factors affecting parents' functioning with the child (e.g., roles, discipline)
IV. Home Language Environment
  A. Patterns of communication in the family (e.g., competence, language used with child, amount of communication, attitudes toward learning English)
  B. Avenues of communication in the home
  C. Patterns of residence (e.g., travel between U.S. and native country)
  D. Language of materials in the home
V. Home Environment
  A. Description of family members (e.g., general characteristics, major caregivers, parent's education, place of birth or childhood)

B. Patterns of residence

C. Economic factors

D. Neighborhood

E. The family and institutions (e.g., contacts, use)

VI. School Environment

A. Patterns of School Enrollment (e.g., number of years in school, where, attendance)

B. School's accomodation of bilingual or LEP children and families (e.g., percentage of in the school, number of biligual personnel, school language programs)

C. Teacher's relationship with the child

VII. Handicapping condition

A. General consideration (e.g., etiology, age of onset)

B. Role of parents (e.g., initial reactions, present attitudes)

Adelman (1970) suggests that children experiencing failure should be provided an instructional program in which curriculum, strategies, material, and so forth, are selected to match the student's learning style. The greater the teacher's skill in personalizing instruction, the fewer number of children likely to exhibit problems which require extensive adaptation, referral or programming by the school.

Sequencing Instruction. Adelman suggests that instruction be sequenced as follows:

1. If the child fails to learn concepts, skills, or subjects presented, these should be retaught using significantly different strategies. For example, if reading is taught using a phonics approach and the child does not learn via this method, other approaches (e.g., sight word, linguistic, language experience, etc.) should be tried. The child's problems may be the result of incompatibility between teaching and learning style.

2. If the instructional strategies are changed, but the child is still experiencing difficulty, the focus of attention should shift to teaching skills prerequisite to the attainment of instructional goals. The learning process will be frustrated unless tasks have been analyzed in terms of demands on the child for performance and skills necessary for successful task completion.

3. If personalizing the environment, reteaching subjects or concepts, or providing prerequisite skills do not improve performance, then it is likely that the child is handicapped. The teacher at this point moves to the third level of instructional focus, remediation of interfering or underlying deficits which interfere with school learning. The teacher should use a variety of approaches which capitalize on the child's strengths and abilities. Approaches used must be significantly different from those

which have already been demonstrated not to meet the child's needs. Specialized procedurees not available under ordinary circumstances should be utilized (e.g., multisensory approaches, specialized or adaptive equipment, etc.). Regardless of the methods or procedures selected, an overriding concern is that they also be appropriate given student characteristics (language, culture, socioeconomic status, etc.)

Using Adelman's intervention model has specific advantages for language minority students. There is assurance that the environment has been personalized making it more likely that the child will not be inappropriately referred to special eduation on the basis of learning problems which could best be attributed to failure to accomodate individual differences. The sequence of instruction assures that a variety of instructional strategies and procedures are used to improve performance before a referral to special education is made. If a referral is made, documentation of interventions, strategies, and materials which have already been tried provide valuable data, not only for assessment purposes, but also for developement of an individual education plan if the child eligible for special education services.

As can be seen from the preceding sections, special education programs must not only meet the child's special education needs, but must also be appropriate in terms of students' linguistic, cultural, socioeconomic status and other background characteristics. In addition to specification of speical education and related servies required by the handicapped student, Individual Education Plans (IEPs) developed for bilignual exceptional children must also include the following (Dew, 1982):

1. Documentation that the assessment data being utilized for educational planning purposes verifies that the child's problems are not directly attributable to a different language, culture, lifestyle, or experiential background;

2. A comprehensive language development plan to increase communicative competence in both English and the native language;

3. A language use plan designating what subject areas or skills will be taught in which languages, and specifying the language of instruction for each objective in the plan.

4. Recommendations for instructional strategies, techniques, and materials which re linguistically relevant, and appropriate to the handicapping condition; and

5. Appropriate reinforcers and motivators.

Inclusion of these components in the IEP is important to development of educational programs which are appropriate, not only in terms of the handicapping condition, but also in terms of student characteristics.

For effective implementatin of the IEP, it is likely that coordination between bilingual education and special education will be required. For example, special educators can provide training or assist in adapting or modifying aspects of bilingual education or ESL curricula such that the handicapped child can be successfully integrated into these programs. Conversely, bilingual educators can assist special education personnel in adapting curricula, instruction, and materials in terms of the child's language, culture, and other unique attributes.

Placement Alternatives

Handicapped bilingual children should have access to the same types of placement options as are provided handicapped monolingual English speakers. This right is frequently ignored when placement decisions are made for LEP students because of the common misconception that, if they are handicapped, these students should be removed from a bilingual instructional setting and placed in a totally English language curriculum. Such reasoning ignores that native language proficiency will determine level of success in acquiring English skills (Cummins, 1981). Placement in special language programs should be continued, if appropriate, and teachers should be provided assistance in adapting classroom programs to meet the child's special education needs. Figure 2 suggests the range of possible placement alternatives for a handicapped student who also requires a special language program.

Insert Figure 2 About Here

While bilingual education placements are used as examples of mainstreaming options, programs such as English as a second language and regular classroom placements could also be considered. The important variable is that placements chosen are those which will help students develop to their greatest potential and which will be consistent with special education needs, as well as relevant in terms of language, culture, and other unique attributes.

Service Delivery Models

A major problem in determining appropriate educational placements for handicapped bilingual students is the shortage of special education personnel who are bilingual and who have specialized training related to serving exceptional limited English proficient or bilingual students. The majority of LEP or bilingual students are served by native English speakers who use the same instructional strategies and procedures as are used with monolingual English speaking students. Consequently, educational prescriptions fail to yield results. They do not accomodate student differences across variables such as language and culture.

School districts have begun to explore alternative service delivery models for bilingual students. Figure 3 describes three models which allow the integration of specialized curriculum in the first or second language and mainstreaming to either a bilingual education or a regular education program (Ambert & Dew, 1982).

Insert Figure 3 About Here

Bilingual support model. Bilingual paraprofessionals are teamed with monolingual English speaking special educators and assist with the implementation of objectives specified in the IEP. The special education teacher provides English as a Second Language instruction in basic skills areas in English. Caution is exercised to assure that the linguistic requirements of academic tasks are consistent with the child's English language development. Instruction in subjects such as math are based on concrete experiences and build language and cognitive development together. The teacher assistant provides native language instruction in areas specified in the IEP as requiring native language instructioon.

The bilingual support model has the obvious advantage that the child has access to someone who speaks his/her language. If bilingual paraprofessionals are receive training specific to the responsibilities and tasks they are asked to perform, they become invaluable resources for the monolingual teacher. Without such training, children may essentially be denied appropriate educational opportunities.

Coordinated Services Model. Under this model, handicapped LEP students are served by a team consisting of a monolingual English speaking special education teacher and a bilingual educator. The special educator provides ESL instruction and is responsible for implementing IEP objectives to be accomplished in English. The bilingual education teacher provides sequenced instruction in the basic skills areas (oral language, math, reading, spelling, writing, etc.) in the native language and is responsible for services designated in the IEP which are to be provided in the native language.

The benefit of this model is that handicapped children have access to personnel trained in the complementary disciplines of bilingual education and special education. These teachers meet together to review student progress and revise instructional programs accordingly. Another advantage is that bilingual educators may be able to facilitate parental involvement in decisions affecting their child's education.

The coordinated services model may not be cost-effective. Two teachers are required to serve handicapped LEP students in special education classrooms. Unless a district has large numbers of children requiring special education services in a language other than English, this model is not likely to be used.

Integrated Bilingual Special Education Model. This model is utilized when a district has teachers who are trained in both bilingual education and special education. These dually certified teachers provide special education instruction in the native language, provide English as a second language training, and assist in the transition into English language instruction as the child develops adequate proficiency. Instruction is adapted to meet the specific needs associated with the nature and severity of the handicapping condition. This model, while it may be cost-effective, is seldom used because of the lack of teachers with training in both fields.

Bilingual Special Education Model. Ortiz and Yates (1983) suggest a fourth model based on the premise that teachers who serve handicapped LEP students require more than training in bilingual education and special education. Rather, there is a unique body of knowledge supportive of, and unique to, bilingual special education. To illustrate this concept, a teacher who is knowledgeable about programming for mentally retarded students, and who has been trained in bilingual education, may not be able to bring together these knowledge bases to develop an appropriate educational program for the mentally retarded LEP student. Bilingual special education teachers are those who have been exposed to, and have developed competencies specific to serving exceptional bilingual students. Suggested competencies are provided in an article by Ortiz and Yates (1982). There are few such personnel available because bilingual special education training programs are virtually non-existent and because there is little research available specific to LEP handicapped children. The unique aspects of bilingual special education are yet to be identified.

Personnel Training Needs

Given the shortage of bilingual education and special education personnel, and the limited number of institutions of higher education engaged in training of bilingual special educators, serving handicapped students requires using interdisciplinary teams for service delivery. Each member of the team can contribute his/her unique expertise, experience, and training. In this way, coordination and interface among bilingual education, special education, regular education, and related programs can be achieved. Educators participating in coordinated efforts must be provided opportunities to develop increased awareness and skills to ensure that LEP children are afforded appropriate educational programs and services. Categories of instructional personnel who should be targeted for training include the following (Ortiz, 1982):

Bilingual Education Teachers. These teachers are serving (a) children who are handicapped but have not been referred because of the lack of bilingual special education teachers or because bilingual educators lack skills to identify children who should be referred to special education and (b) children who are handicapped and who have been mainstreamed into their classes. Bilingual educators frequently lack training to help exceptional children achieve their potential in the context of the regular classroom.

Special Education Teachers who are Bilingual. One should not assume that if a teacher is bilingual and has special education training, s/he can serve exceptional LEP children effectively. Training in areas such as how to provide native language instruction and how to adapt such instruction to meet children's special education needs can increase the effectiveness of services provided by these teachers.

Monolingual Special Education Teachers. As indicated previously, the reality is that the majority of exceptional bilingual children are served by monolingual English speaking special education personnel. Effectiveness of services is increased when teachers are provided training relative to factors which influence the performance of LEP students and on how to provide instruction in English which is comprehensible and relevant given the language, culture, and other attributes of this population. Training in English as a Second Language techniques and methods would be important for these personnel.

Regular Classroom Teachers. Overrepresentation of LEP students in language-related categories (Ortiz & Yates, 1983; Garcia, 1983; Maldonado, 1983) suggests that teachers are unable to distinguish linguistic/cultural differences from handicappping conditions. Training of regular educators may result in more appropriate referrals to special education and in the provision of more appropriate education programs in mainstream settings. Of particular concern is that regular classroom teachers continue to provide language support for students who are exited from special language programs to assure they have adequate English proficiency to perform academic tasks successfully (Cummins, 1981; Ortiz, in press).

Paraprofessionals. There is a need to train paraprofessionals who, in many instances, will have primary responsibility for instructing the handicapped LEP child. Unless these personnel receive training specific to the responsibilities and tasks they are required to perform, handicapped LEP children may essentially be denied educational opportunities. Content for training of paraprofessionals would include competencies associated with general education procedures, competencies to provide instruction native language and English as a second language instruction, and skills to adapt instruction to the needs of the handicapped learner.

Assessment Personnel. There is a lack of assessment personnel who can test the child in his/her native language and interpret performance in light of the student's background characteristics. Consequently, children may be inaccurately diagnosed as handicapped because appraisal personnel are not able to distinguish differences from deficiencies. Training associated with the effects of language, culture, etc. on performance, as well as on best practices in assessment of students from dual language backgrounds is critical to prevent the inappropriate placement of LEP students in special education.

Administrators. As indicated earlier, coordination between bilingual education and special language programs is critical to serving bilingual exceptional students. This coordination would not, for many schools, require reorganization of programs and serices, but rather establishment of a mechanism for assuring coordination of effort. It is the responsibility of administrators, including principals and supervisors, to insure that necessary services are provided, that adequate resources are allocated, and that instructional interventions recommended are implemented. Assisting administators with program management strategies would be beneficial to achieving bilingual education-special education interfaces.

It is important for all personnel involved in identification, placement, or service delivery for LEP populations to receive training to assure that educational opportunities provided these students are appropriate given their backgrounds as well as handicapping condition(s). This would include personnel in related services areas such as counseling, physical and occurpational therapy, adaptive physical education, etc. Training should also be provided for parents to assure that they are effective, informed participants in decision-making processes related to their children's education.

Curriculum and Instruction Research Questions

There is a need for longitudinal studies of handicapped LEP and bilingual students which would examine achievement/performance differences when (a) different interventions are utilized; (b) different language interventions are provided; (c) when alternative service delivery models are used; and (d) when service categories are provided for various handicappping conditions. The following are questions for which there is a need to provide a research base specific to the education of exceptional LEP students.

Language Interventions

1. What are the long term effects on achievement when instruction is provided in the native language, bilingually, or in English only?

2. What criteria should be used to determine the language of instruction?

3. How does one interpret informal assessment of language (e.g., spontaneous language samples, cloze testing, tests of dictation, etc.) and how can this data be utilized in choosing the language of instruction or prescribing interventions?

4. How can cognitive academic proficiency be assessed? What is the relationship between basic interpersonal communication skills and academic language proficiency?

5. What interventions yield the best results in development of both basic interpersonal communication skills and academic language proficiency for handicapped bilingual children?

6. What language criteria should be utilized to place students into bilingual special education programs?

7. What criteria should be utilized to exit students from bilingual special education programs?

8. What are the differences, if any, in language development programs provided handicapped LEP children and those provided children normally acquiring English as a second language?

9. Do bilingual, English as a Second Language, and English monolingual special education programs yield different effectiveness levels with different categories of handicappping conditions? For example, are mentally retarded children who speak a language other than English, or who are more proficient in their native language, most effectively taught in English, their native language, or bilingually? What are the long term consequences, cognitively, educationally, and pragmatically, of these interventions?

Educational Interventions

10. What psychological, educational, health-related, and demographic variables best predict outcomes for different LEP handicapped children who are mainstreamed into bilingual, ESL, English monolingual classes, or special education programs (e.g. self-contained, resource settings, etc.)?

11. What are the characteristics of the actual curricula beig implemented in bilingual special education classrooms?

12. What specific information could be included inlindividual education plans to facilitate provision of services appropriate both in terms of the handicapping condition and specific student characteristics?

13. What well-documented guidelines can be given to practitioners regarding essential features of intervention programs?

14. Is there a need for new curriculum and instructional methods?

15. How can materials be adapted to meet the needs of diverse populations (linguistically, culturally, handicapping condition, etc.) in the same setting?

16. What are the characteristics of effective methods utilized with handicapped LEP populations?

17. How can cultural differences be accomodated in curriculum and materials to yield a relevant curriculum?

Teaching/Learning Styles

18. Are there differences in cognitive styles among normal versus handicapped LEP students?

19. What are the influences of student demographic characteristics on learning styles, including handicapping condition?

20. What are the implications of research on right/left brain processing for educational interventions with exceptional bilingual students?

21. Do handicapped LEP children reflect differences in cognitive styles across languages and subject or skill areas?

22. How do student characteristics affect teacher-pupil interactions? What are the interaction effects of linguistic/cultural differences and handicapping conditions?

23. What teaching styles and interaction patterns are most effective with exceptional bilingual students?

Research questions posed are neither exhaustive nor comprehensive. They serve merely to highlight the types of research which must be conducted to develop knowledge bases upon which specific educational programs, curricula, methods, materials, etc. can be determined or developed. Given the range of research needs, the first question which should be answered is "What are the priorities?"

Summary

The literature does not seem to support the need for new curricula and instructional methods for bilingual exceptional students. However, this lack of support may best be explained by the lack of empirical research on these topics. It would be premature to conclude that existing curricula and materials can meet the needs of this population. Until such research is available, research conducted in related disciplines will continue to provide a basis for educational programming decisions. As new research findings are produced and dissmeninated, practices should be modified or adapted as appropriate.

There is evidence that bilingual education and special education can be linked together in effective problem solving formats. It is possible to describe instructional arrangements being utilized for bilingual exceptional students, but there is little empirical evidence available to determine the most appropriate arrangement(s) for any given handicapping condition or identified student characteristics.

The literature does not favor either bilingual education or special education as the most appropriate placement for LEP handicapped students. The real issue, however, appears to be whether handicapped students should receive dual language instruction. Educators wonder whether it may be more effective, when a LEP student is eligible for special education, to remove that student from a bilingual education placement and place him/her in a classroom where instruction is provided solely in English. Literature on second language acquistion would not support this decision. There is growing evidence that handicapped children, just as normal children, receive the most appropriate education when they are provided instruction in the native language, participate in a structured program for learning English, if appropriate, and when instruction is consonant with both the handicapping condition(s) and student background characteristics.

There is a need to develop instructional materials and curriucula and to make them available to educators who serve exceptional LEP students. This is not an awesome task in that much groundwork has already been done in identifying existing materials which may be appropriate to this population or which could be adapted to meet specific student needs or characteristics (Dew, 1981; Deignan & Ryan, 1979). It would not be accurate, then, to say that there are no materials on the market. Information about resources which do exist has not been disseminated widely.

It is questionable whether it is possible to leave responsibility for adapting or modifying curricula or materials to existing school personnel. There is a general lack of understanding of linguistically and culturally different populations, even in settings where minorities comprise the majority student body. Lack of information mitigates against possibilities that teachers and others would be able to, on an on-going basis, adapt instructional materials and strategies to make them relevant in terms of student characteristics, as well as appropriate to handicapping conditions.

An obvious answer, of course, is to train staff. However, as indicated previously, few institutions of higher education or related agencies currently address the needs of bilingual special education populations in the context of teacher preparation programs. Institutions which providing a bilingual special education training sequence do not have the capability of meeting existing needs for bilingual special educators. Further, it is unlikely that adequate resources could be allocated to providing inservice training to currently employed personnel. For example, in Texas alone, there are 1100 independent school districts which might require services. Given the increasing numbers of bilingual students, it becomes imperative that instructional materials and curricula be available for limited English proficient populations. This is the responsibility of scholars, state, local, and federal education agencies, as well as commercial publishers.

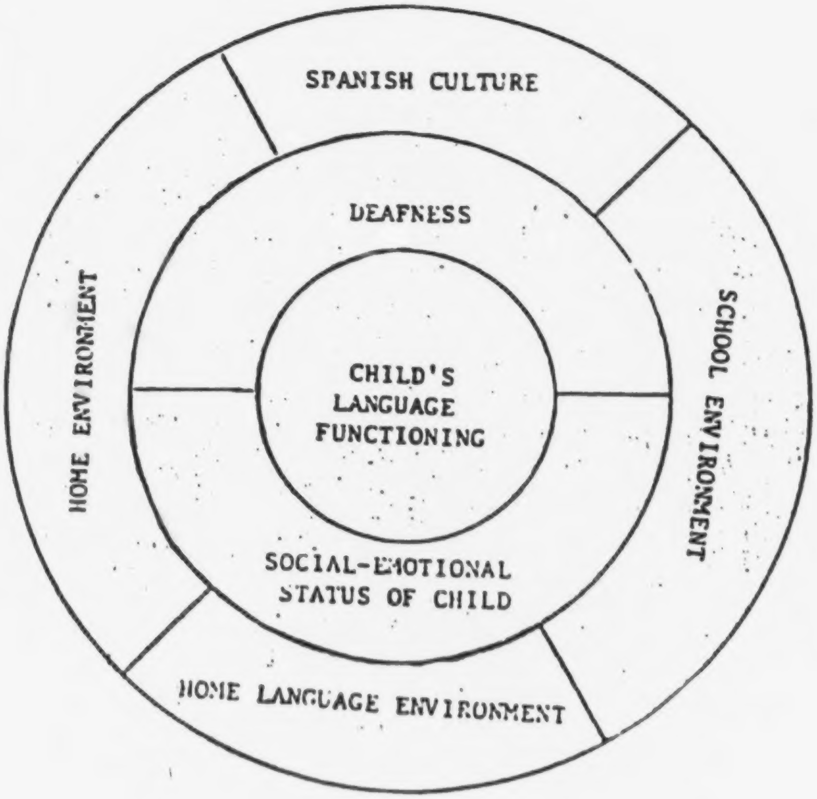

SPANISH CULTURE
DEAFNESS
HOME ENVIRONMENT
SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT
CHILD'S LANGUAGE FUNCTIONING
SOCIAL-EMOTIONAL STATUS OF CHILD
HOME LANGUAGE ENVIRONMENT

Figure 1. Graphic representation of deaf Hispanic child's language functioning. (From Lerman, A. & Cortez, E. Discovering and meeting the needs of Hispanic hearing impaired students, ERIC # 155-292, 1978.

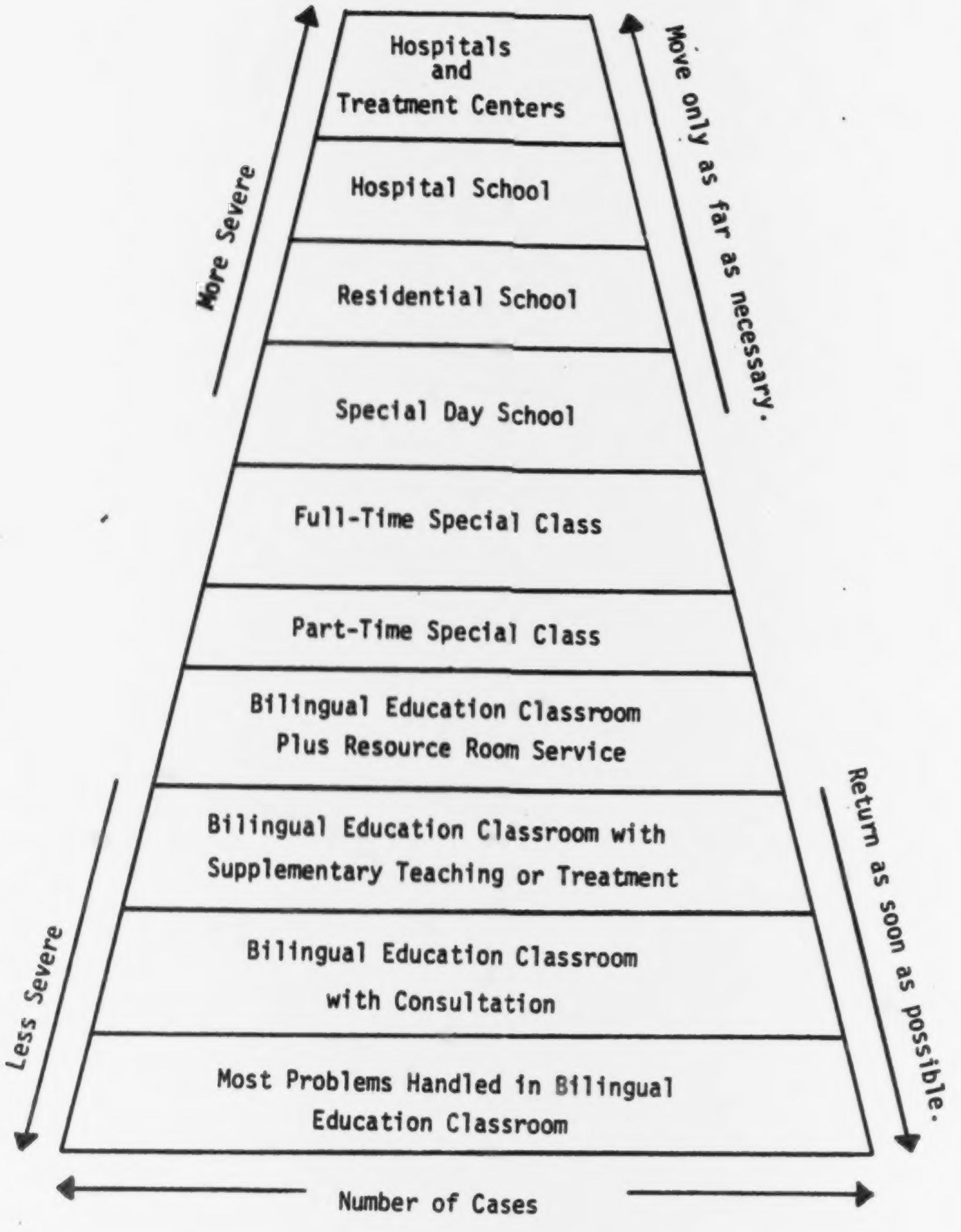

Hospitals and Treatment Centers
Hospital School
Residential School
Special Day School
Full-Time Special Class
Part-Time Special Class
Bilingual Education Classroom Plus Resource Room Service
Bilingual Education Classroom with Supplementary Teaching or Treatment
Bilingual Education Classroom with Consultation
Most Problems Handled in Bilingual Education Classroom
More Severe
Less Severe
Move only as far as necessary.
Return as soon as possible.
Number of Cases

Figure 2:

Adapted from Reynolds, M. A framework for considering some issues in special education. Exceptional Children, Vol. 28 (March 1962), pp. 367-370.

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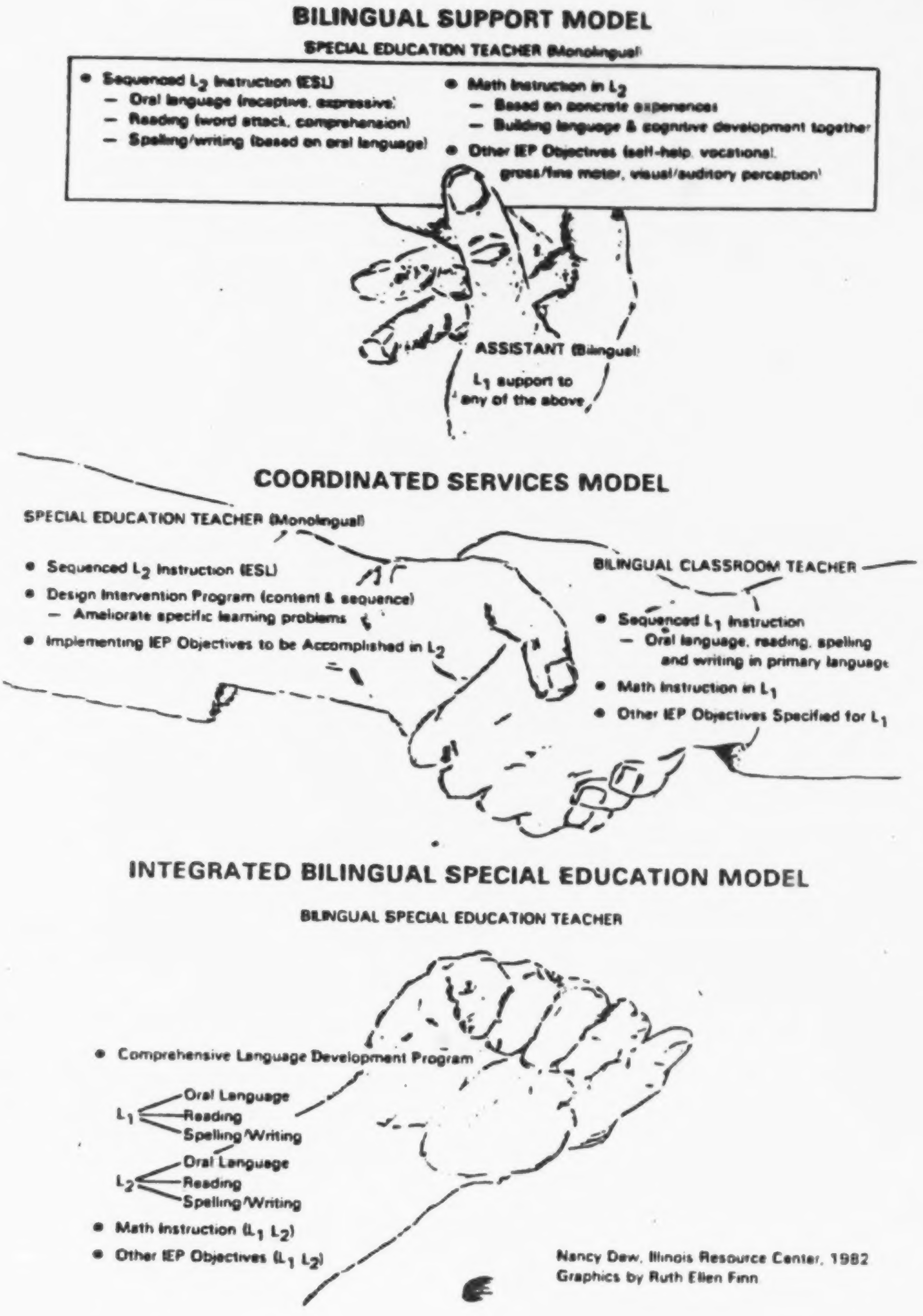
BILINGUAL SUPPORT MODEL
SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHER (Monolingual)
• Sequenced L2 Instruction (ESL)
— Oral language (receptive, expressive)
— Reading (word attack, comprehension)
— Spelling/writing (based on oral language)
• Math Instruction in L2
— Based on concrete experiences
— Building language & cognitive development together
• Other IEP Objectives (self-help, vocational, gross/fine motor, visual/auditory perception)
ASSISTANT (Bilingual)
L1 support to any of the above
COORDINATED SERVICES MODEL
SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHER (Monolingual)
• Sequenced L2 Instruction (ESL)
• Design Intervention Program (content & sequence)
— Ameliorate specific learning problems
• Implementing IEP Objectives to be Accomplished in L2
BILINGUAL CLASSROOM TEACHER
• Sequenced L1 Instruction
— Oral language, reading, spelling and writing in primary language
• Math Instruction in L1
• Other IEP Objectives Specified for L1
INTEGRATED BILINGUAL SPECIAL EDUCATION MODEL
BILINGUAL SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHER
• Comprehensive Language Development Program
L1 Oral Language
Reading
Spelling/Writing
L2 Oral Language
Reading
Spelling/Writing
• Math Instruction (L1 L2)
• Other IEP Objectives (L1 L2)

Nancy Dew, Illinois Resource Center, 1982
Graphics by Ruth Ellen Finn

Figure 3. Service delivery options. (From Ambert, A. & Dew, N. Special Education for Exceptional Bilingual Students: A handbook for educators. Milwaukee: Midwest National Origin Desegregation Assistance Center, 198

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Curriculum and Instructional Methods for Exceptional Bilingual Children

Annotated Bibliography

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The University of Texas at Austin

Curriculum and Instructional Methods for Exceptional Bilingual Children

Annotated Bibliography

Almanza, H. & Mosley, W. Curriculum adaptations and modifications for culturally diverse handicapped children. *Exceptional Children*, May, 1980, *46*(6), 608-614.

The authors discuss individual traits and learning styles which affect learning, including movement repertoire and perceptual and cognitive style. Because students experience problems when there is a lack of compatibility between teaching and learning style, the authors suggest that curriculum development relate more directly to the adaptive styles of exceptional culturally diverse learners.

Baca, L. *Policy options for insuring the delivery of an appropriate education to handicapped children who are of limited English proficiency*. Reston, VA: Council for Exceptional Children, December, 1980.

Baca provides a historical overview of litigation and legislation affecting educational opportunities for limited English proficient children and highlights litigation related specifically to services for LEP handicapped children. He concludes that there are legal precedents for providing bilingual instruction for LEP handicapped children. Models being used to provide services to exceptional LEP children are identified. Baca reviews current mandates for service delivery to LEP children, provides policy options related to service delivery and discusses both positive and negative effects of policy implementation.

Bryen,, D. N. Special education and the linguistically different child. *Exceptional Children*, 1974, *40*, 589-599.

Problems associated with the use of traditional assessment procedures for educational placement of linguistically different children are discussed in the context of disproportionate representation of this population in special education programs. Implications for assessment and education are given from the perspective of whether language characteristics are considered deficiencies versus differences. Whether one chooses to accept dialect differences, eradicate them, or accept them in situational contexts, the author contends that to validly measure basic learning abilities of children, language must not be a barrier to performance.

Chan, K. & Rueda, R. Poverty and culture in education: Separate but equal. Exceptional Children, 1979, 45, 422-428.

Poverty and cultural background are separate and distinct factors that equally affect educational adjustment and success and which may require separate attention in research and intervention. Poverty warrants economic, medical, and environmental intervention in order to overcome problems associated with restricted opportunities. Cultural conflicts require a critical reexamination of the assumptions and prerequisites of the "hidden" currriculum. Problems in the education of minority children can be conceptualized as a product of the conflict between a child's development in one setting and the prerequisites of schooling.

Chinn, P. The exceptional minority child: Issues and some answers. Exceptional Children, 1979a, 45, 532-536.

The relationship of cultural diversity to exceptionality is explored. The author focuses on two major instructional concerns related to the exceptional minority child: self concept and motivation. When a teacher values the culture of a child, and when a trust relationship is established, the child's chances for success are improved. Chinn concludes that enlightenment in cultural diversity and a careful study of the idiosyncracies of each ethnic group, coupled with sound special education techniques, provide a basic foundation for meeting the needs of minority children.

Chinn, P. Curriculum development for culturally different exceptional children. Teacher Education and Special Education, Summer 1979, 2(4), 49-58.

Chinn provides a brief description of learning styles and background characteristics which should be considered in the development of curricula or curricular approaches for culturally diverse children. Strategies which can be used with this population are described including those recommended for gifted and talented students and for retarded children. If school achievement of culturally diverse exceptional children is to improve, instructional approaches must be tailored to individual learning styles.

Cummins, J. The role of primary language development in promoting educational success for language minority students. In *Schooling and language minority students: A theoretical framework.* Los Angeles: Bilingual Education Evaluation, Dissemination, and Assessment Center.

Cummins addresses the following topics: (1) the nature of language proficiency and its relationship to academic and cognitive development; (2) the origins of common misconceptions about bilingual education; (3) a theoretical framework for understanding the nature of bilingual proficiency; (4) evaluations of bilingual programs; (5) variables affecting language development; and (6) bilingual proficiency as educational enrichment. Also discussed are a rationale for bilingual education, entry/exit criteria, and assessment considerations. Cummins suggests that one reason language minority students fail to develop high levels of academic skills is that initial instruction is in English and unrelated to their prior out-of-school experiences. Bilingual education programs reviewed suggest that bilingual instruction is more effective than English only instruction in promoting English academic skills and that the first language can be promoted at no cost to English proficiency.

Dew, N. *Specialized curriculum materials for exceptional bilingual children.* Arlington Heights, Illinois: Resource Center for Exceptional Bilingual Children, 1981.

Materials appropriate for exceptional bilingual children are presented in the areas of (1) oral language development; (2) literacy development; (3) auditory and visual perception and perceptual motor development; and (4) teacher reference materials. Titles, publishers, recommended grade levels, and illustrations are provided.

de Avila, E. Mainstreaming ethnically and linguistically different children: An exercise in paradox or a new approach? In Jones, R. (Ed.), *Mainstreaming and the minority child*. Reston, VA: Council for Exceptional Children, 1976.

The author examines problems underlying traditionally used assessment procedures including translation problems, cultural contradictions, and the general utility of information produced by tests. He describes an alternative to traditional testing and an assessment approach based on Piagetian concepts. The Program Assessment/Pupil Instruction diagnostic procedure developed by De Avila and others is described. The PAPI offers data-oriented instructional planning and provides evaluation information at the funding, administrative, and district levels.

DeLeon, J. *Evaluating and adapting materials for use with bilingual exceptional children.* Paper presented at the meeting of the Council for Exceptional Children, Detroit, Michigan, April 1983.

Suggestions are provided for adapting existing instructional materials for exceptional bilingual students. Guidelines and checklists are provided for materials evaluation, adaptations for differences in learning styles and language characteristics, matching students with materials, structuring interventions,, and selecting materials.

Diggs, R. Education across cultures. *Exceptional Children*, 1974, *40*, 578-583.

This article examines some of the basic tenents involved in education across culture: motivation; cultural background and the educational process; programs; instructional materials. Diggs reviews recommendations for educational programming and emphasizes the need for language development, consistent treatment throughout school history, and teacher preparation progams with a multicultural emphasis. Issues associated with serving disadvantaged gifted populations are discussed. The author suggests that a combined counseling and instructional approach is effective in upgrading academic skills and helping students develop self direction and control.

Feuerstein, R. *Instrumental enrichment: An intervention program for cognitive modifiability*. Baltimore: University Park Press, 1980.

According to Feuerstein, children from economically, and psychologically, impoverished homes function at low levels because they have been denied mediated learning environments. The Instrumental Enrichment Program is designed to mediate experiences by making the individual more receptive to internal and external stimuli. An objective of the program is to change the way a person interacts with, acts on, or responds to sources of information. In essence, FIE is a process for teaching students how to learn.

Henderson, R. Social and emotional needs of culturally diverse chidren. *Exceptional Children,* May 1980, *46*, 598-605.

Henderson discusses basic concepts associated with cultural diversity and stereotypes. The possible consequences for culturally diverse children who are unable to make a functional adaptation to the school setting are described. Literature is reviewed which establishes a general case that level of student involvement in academic tasks and the nature of teacher-student interactions are consistently related to achievement. Also reviewed is literature associated with learned helplessness. There is a striking parallel between the characteristics of learning disabled children and the learned helplessness pattern. This parallel may result in inappropriate labeling of children as handicapped.

Jaramillo, M. Cultural conflict curriculum and the exceptional child. *Exceptional Children*, 1974, *40*, 585-587.

Teachers must recognize that there will be cultural conflicts between themselves and some of their students. They should try to understand and use cultural differences to enrich the education of all students. Jaramillo makes several suggestions for teachers to take advantage of the rich heritage children bring to the classroom. A key point made is that children learn more quickly when their culture is used to mediate instruction.

Kamp, S. & Chinn, P. *A multiethnic curriculum for special education students.* Reston, VA: Council for Exceptional Children, 1982.

The authors discuss the meanings of culture, ethnic groups, multicultural education, and ethnic studies. The multiethnic curriculum presented is aimed at helping students develop a sense of appreciation for their own culture, as well as appreciation for the heritage of others. Sample activities are provided that integrate experiences and perspectives of American Indians, Asian Americans, Black/Afro Americans, Mexican Americans, and Puerto Ricans.

Krashen, S. Bilingual education and second language acquisition theory. In *Schooling and language minority students: A theoretical framework.* Los Angeles: Bilingual Education Evaluation, Dissemination, and Assessment Center, 1982.

The process of second language acquisition is reviewed to help resolve central issues in bilingual education. Types of bilingual education and special language programs are described. Krashen concludes that bilingual programs in which subject matter is taught in the native language and a source of comprehensible input is provided in the second language are the most effective for limited English proficient students.

Lerman, A. & Cortez, E. Discovering and meeting the needs of Hispanic hearing impaired children. ERIC # ED 155-292, 1978.

Lerman and Cortez provide a detailed discussion of variables to consider in assuring that educational programs are appropriate for a student, not only in terms of his/her handicapping condition, but also in terms of linguistic, cultural, and other background characteristics. The areas discussed include: (1) language status of the child; (2) social-emotional status; (3) culture; (4) home language environment; (5) home environment; (6) school environment; and (7) handicapping conditions. While the authors present a model to facilitate instructional planning for hearing impaired Hispanics , the model is generally applicable to other categories of handicapping conditions.

Ortiz, A. Choosing the language of instruction for exceptional bilingual children. Teaching Exceptional Children, in press.

A continuum of language diversity among minorities is presented and a framework for choosing the language of instruction for limited English proficient and bilingual students is provided. The author stresses the need to provide language development programs in both the first and the second language. Also emphasized is the importance of providing native language instruction for LEP handicapped students.

Ortiz, A. Development and implementation of IEPs for exceptional bilingual children. In Nazarro, J. (Ed.), Culturally diverse exceptional children in school. Reston, VA: Council for Exceptional Children, 1981.

The author highlights resources required for developing individual education plans for bilingual and limited English proficient students. It is recommended that environments in which the child is expected to perform be analyzed, particularly to determine whether student characteristics, teacher expectations, andlteacher-pupil interactions are negatively affecting student performance. Also discussed is the need to assure that bilingual children have access to a continuum of placement alternatives. To appropriately serve handicapped LEP students, special education services appropriate in terms of language or other student characteristics are required, as is support for bilingual educators into whose classes many of these children are mainstreamed.

Plata, M. Preparing teachers for the Mexican American handicapped: The challenge and the charge. Teacher Education and Special Education, Summer 1979, 2(4), 21-26.

This article focuses on issues in the preparation of teachers who will serve handicapped Mexican Americans. Plata stresses that the effective teacher must learn as much as possible about the culture of the Mexican American, accept cultural differences as realistic and valid, and ultimately create a learning environment and curriculum relevant to the student and consistent with expectations and desires of parents, community, and public policy. He also suggests that teachrs must (1) learn English as a Second Language techniques in order to teach limited English proficient students; (2) individualize isntruction in two languages; (3) develop materials in the native language and English; and (4) incorporate cultural considerations in instruction. Students should be allowed to maintain their native language while learning ESL.

Plata, M. & Santos, S. Bilingual special education: A challenge for the future. Teaching Exceptional Children, 14, 97-100.

Exceptional bilingual students require specialized curriculum and methodologies which are relevant both in terms of the handicapping condition and linguistic or cultural characteristics. The authors recommend that local education agencies integrate bilingual education teaching concepts into special education programming. Bilingual special education should be viewed as a strategy which incorporates theories, methods, and materials from both the bilingual and the special education disciplines. A list of resources is provided.

Rodriguez, R., Cole, J., Stile, S. & Gallegos, R. Bilingualism and biculturalism for the special education classroom. Teacher Education and Special Education, Summer, 1979, 2(4), 69-74.

A plan of action to assist special educators in their interactions with children and parents whose primarly language is Spanish is outlined. Research on the effectiveness of bilingual/bicultural approaches which would support the use of such an approach in special education is sited. Also outlined are Hispanic cultural competencies for special educators. The authors conclude that a growing body of literature demonstrates that Hispanic learning disabled chidlren fare better in environments in which their culture and language is incorporated into the curriculum.

Rubenzer, R. The role of the right hemisphere in learning and creativity: Implications for enhancing problem solving ability. *The Gifted Child Quarterly*, Spring 1979, 23(1), 78-100.

A review of literature associated with right hemisphere processes and psychophysiological models of the functional organization of the brain are presented. The major roles of the right hemisphere processing models in language, learning, perception, creativity, and affect are discussed. Also discussed are varying modes of cognitive and affective functioning correlated with EEG patterns. A systematic approach to facilitate problem solving skills is outlined. It is hypothesized that appropriate shifts in the quality and focus of attention can be consciously elicited through mastery of relaxation and other techniques. It would thus be possible to bring about cognitive and affective modes apropo to the stage of problem solving at hand.

Silvernail, D. *Teaching styles as related to student achievement.* Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1979.

A summary of research findings related to teaching styles, strategies, and activities which are more effective than others in helping students increase academic achievement is provided. Research is reviewed which addresses: (1) the relationship between teacher behaviors and styles and student learning or attitude; (2) globally defined teaching styles; (3) feedback; (4) questioning activities; (5) structuring activities; (6) clarity; (7) task-oriented teaching style; (8) enthusiasm; (9) reward structure; (10) classroom climate.

Secada, W. The language of instruction for hearing impaired students from non-English speaking homes: A framework for considering alternatives. In G. Delgado (Ed.), *The Hispanic Deaf-Issues and Challenges.* Washington, D.C.: Gallaudet College Press, (forthcoming).

Secada addresses the issue of choosing the language of instruction for hearing impaired students from non-English speaking homes. A decision framework is presented which includes language options for limited English proficient students and those available for the hearing impaired. Considerations in choosing specific options to accomodate both the handicapping condition and language characteristics are discussed. The author stresses that programs that attempt to develop English oral skills or sign skills to the exclusion of the student's home language risk confusing students and alienating them from their community.

Tikunoff, W. *The Significant Bilingual instructional Features descriptive study: Progress and issues from Part 1.* Paper Presented at the meeting of the American Eductional Research Association, New York, March 1982.

Tikunoff presents preliminary findings of the SBIF study. Data collected suggests that bilingual education teachers emphasize basic skills, monitor student progress, communicate instructional demands, and engage students in task completion. Effective bilingual education teachers also mediate instruction using both the native and the English language and respond to and use cultural clues in teaching. Approximately 3/4 of the time allocated to basic skill instruction was deemed to be academic learning time (ALT), time students spend in a particular content area engaged in learning tasks with a high degree of accuracy. Tikunoff concludes that teaching behaviors of bilingual educators compare favorably with those behaviors documented in literature on effective instruction.